

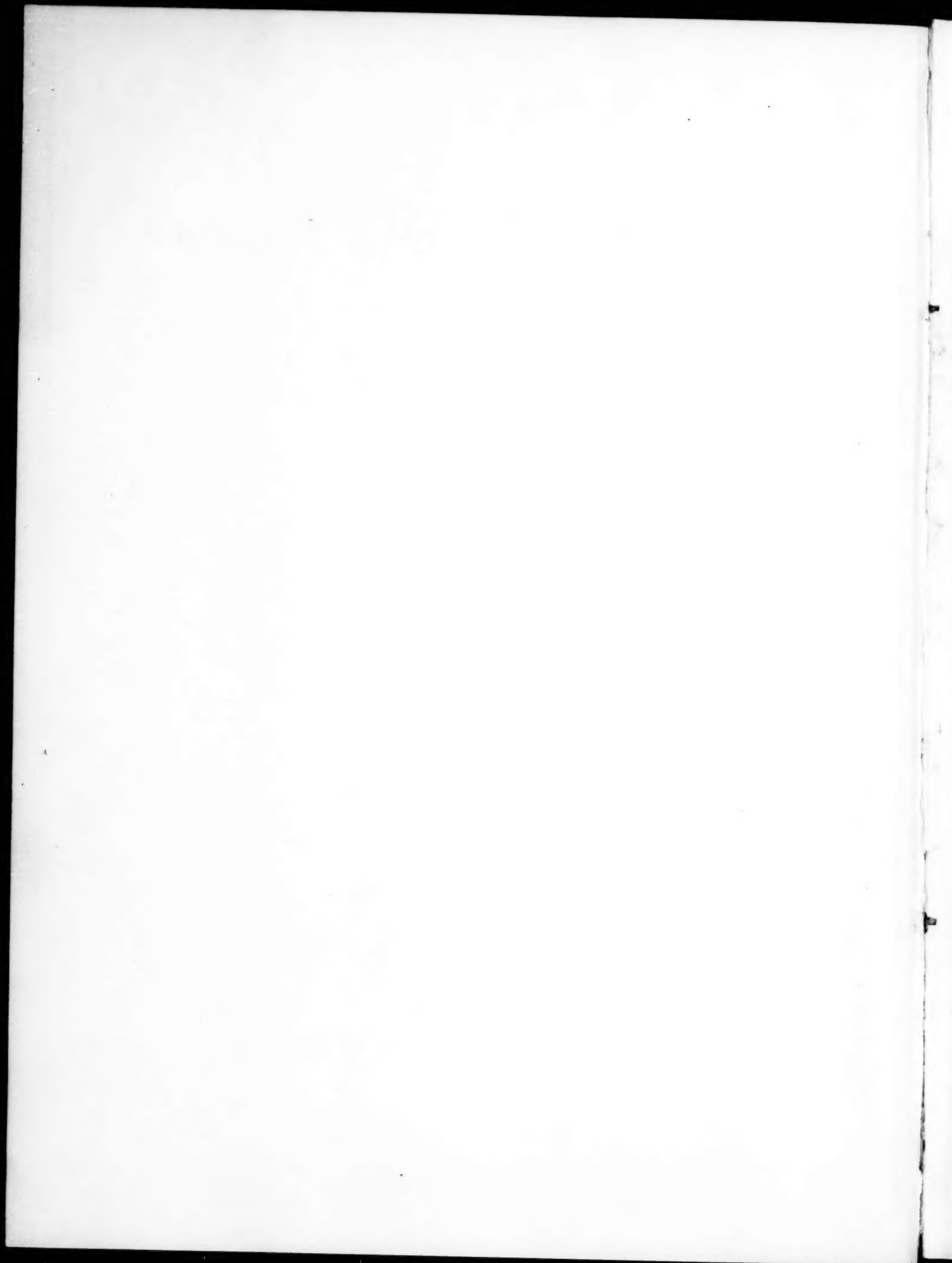
The History Teacher's Magazine

Published under the Supervision of a Committee of the
American Historical Association

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Volume VIII.
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The Social Studies in Secondary Education

The greater part of this number of the MAGAZINE is given up to the text of the Report of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association. This report was issued late in November, 1916, by the United States Bureau of Education as Bulletin No. 28, 1916, and copies can be obtained either from the bureau or by sending ten cents to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

No excuse is necessary for devoting so much space to this report. It is printed here not alone to save our readers the trouble of securing a copy from Washington, but more particularly to make sure that the text of the report be placed at the earliest possible date in the hands of the four thousand readers of the MAGAZINE. The subscribers to the MAGAZINE constitute by far the most alert and most progressive body of history teachers in the country. It is important that they have an early opportunity to study the report and give expression to their views of the advantages and disadvantages of the proposed plan. It is not thought desirable in this issue to make any editorial comment or criticism of the report.

All of the report is here printed except the Preface, and Part IV which deals with standards by which to test methods, with the preparation of teachers and with the availability of textbooks and other materials.

The actual editorial work on the report has been completed under the direction of Arthur William Dunn, special agent in Civic Education of the Bureau of Education, who has acted as secretary of the committee. The members of the committee are as follows:

Thomas Jesse Jones, Chairman, United States Bureau of Education.
Arthur William Dunn, Secretary, United States Bureau of Education.
W. A. Aery, Hampton Institute, Hampton, Va.
J. Lynn Barnard, School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia.
George C. Bechtel, Principal, Northwestern High School, Detroit, Mich.
F. L. Boynton, Principal, High School, Deerfield, Mass.
E. C. Branson, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C.
Henry R. Burch, West Philadelphia High School, Philadelphia.
F. W. Carrier, Somerville High School, Somerville, Mass.
Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School for Girls, Philadelphia.

Frank P. Goodwin, Woodward High School, Cincinnati, O.

W. J. Hamilton, Superintendent of Schools, Two Rivers, Wis.

Blanche C. Hazard, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

S. B. Howe, High School, Newark, N. J.

Clarence D. Kingsley, State High School Inspector, Boston, Mass.

J. Herbert Low, Manual Training High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.

William H. Mace, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York.

William T. Morrey, Bushwick High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.

John Pettibone, High School, New Milford, Conn.

James Harvey Robinson, Columbia University, New York.

William A. Wheatley, Superintendent of Schools, Middletown, Conn.

In the Preface the committee states that it "issues this report with the conviction that the secondary school teachers of social studies have a remarkable opportunity to improve the citizenship of the land. This conviction is based upon the fact that the million and a third secondary school pupils constitute probably the largest and most impressionable group in the country that can be directed to a serious and systematic effort, through both study and practice, to acquire the social spirit. If the two and a half million pupils of the seventh and eighth grades are included in the secondary group according to the six-and-six plan, the opportunity will be very greatly increased.

"The committee interprets this opportunity as a responsibility which can be realized only by the development in the pupil of a constructive attitude in the consideration of all social conditions. In facing the increasing complexity of society, it is most important that the youth of the land be steadied by an unwavering faith in humanity and by an appreciation of the institutions which have contributed to the advancement of civilization."

The MAGAZINE will gladly print in forthcoming numbers brief statements of the opinions of teachers upon the committee's report. If you think this report shows excellencies or dangerous tendencies, will you not freely use the columns of this paper to present your views to your fellow-teachers?

Report of the Committee on Social Studies

Of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association

PART I.—INTRODUCTION.

1. *Definition of the social studies.*—The social studies are understood to be those whose subject matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society, and to man as a member of social groups.

2. *Aims of the social studies.*—The social studies differ from other studies by reason of their social content rather than in social aim; for the keynote of modern education is "social efficiency," and instruction in all subjects should contribute to this end. Yet, from the nature of their content, the social studies afford peculiar opportunities for the training of the individual as a member of society. Whatever their value from the point of view of personal culture, unless they contribute directly to the cultivation of social efficiency on the part of the pupil they fail in their most important function. They should accomplish this end through the development of an appreciation of the nature and laws of social life, a sense of the responsibility of the individual as a member of social groups, and the intelligence and the will to participate effectively in the promotion of the social well-being.

More specifically, the social studies of the American high school should have for their conscious and constant purpose the cultivation of good citizenship. We may identify the "good citizen" of a neighborhood with the "thoroughly efficient member" of that neighborhood; but he will be characterized, among other things, by a loyalty and a sense of obligation to his City, State, and Nation as political units. Again, "society" may be interpreted to include the human race. Humanity is bigger than any of its divisions. The social studies should cultivate a sense of membership in the "world community," with all the sympathies and sense of justice that this involves as among the different divisions of human society. The first step, however, toward a true "neighborliness" among nations must be a realization of national ideals, national efficiency, national loyalty, national self-respect, just as real neighborliness among different family groups depends upon the solidarity, the self-respect, and the loyalty to be found within each of the component families.

High national ideals and an intelligent and genuine loyalty to them should thus be a specific aim of the social studies in American high schools.

3. *The point of view of the committee.*—(1) The committee adheres to the view that it was appointed, not to "obtain justice" for a group of social studies as against other groups, or for one social study as against others, but to consider wherein such studies might be made to contribute most effectively to the purposes of secondary education. It believes that

the social studies require "socialization" quite as much as other studies, and that this is of greater moment than the number of social studies offered or the number of hours assigned to each.

The subject of civics may be taken to illustrate this point. Its avowed purpose is to train for citizenship. The various attempts to secure a more perfect fulfillment of this purpose by increasing the quantity offered, by making the subject required instead of elective, by transferring it from last year to first year of the high school or vice versa, by introducing it in the elementary course of study, by shifting the emphasis from the National Government to municipal government—such attempts have been more or less mechanical and superficial. Unless the subject matter and the methods of instruction are adapted to the pupil's immediate needs of social growth, such attempts avail little. What is true of civics is also true of the other social studies, such as history and economics.

(2) The committee has refrained from offering detailed outlines of courses, on the ground that they tend to fix instruction in stereotyped forms inconsistent with a real socializing purpose. The selection of topics and the organization of subject matter should be determined in each case by immediate needs. The attempt has been, therefore, to establish certain principles, to illustrate these as far as possible by examples from actual practice, and to stimulate initiative on the part of teachers and school administrators in testing proposed method or in judicious experiments of their own.

No sensible teacher of history asks how many facts he is to teach. No two teachers—if good ones—would teach the same number of facts or just the same facts to the same pupils or class, and much less to different classes. No sensible teacher asks what kind of facts he shall teach, expecting to receive in answer a tabulation of his material. He knows that general rules accompanied by suitable illustrations are the only useful answer to these questions. (Elementary course of study in geography, history, and civics, Indianapolis.)

(3) One principle the committee has endeavored to keep before it consistently throughout this report because of its fundamental character. It is contained in the following quotation from Prof. Dewey:

We are continually uneasy about the things we adults know, and are afraid the child will never learn them unless they are drilled into him by instruction before he has any intellectual use for them. If we could really believe that attending to the needs of present growth would keep the child and teacher alike busy, and would also provide the best possible guarantee of the learning needed in the future, transformation of educational ideals might soon be accomplished, and other desirable changes would largely take care of themselves.

The high-school course has heretofore been determined too largely by supposed future needs and too little by present needs and past experience. The important fact is not that the pupil is getting ready to live, but that he is living, and in immediate need of such mental and social nourishment and training as will enable him to adjust himself to his present social environment and conditions. By the very processes of present growth he will make the best possible provision for the future. This does not mean that educational processes should have no reference to the future. It does not mean, to use a concrete illustration, that a boy should be taught nothing about voting until he is 21 and about to cast his first ballot. It means merely that such instruction should be given at the psychological and social moment when the boy's interests are such as to make the instruction function effectively in his processes of growth. A distinction should be made between the "needs of present growth" and immediate, objective utility. As a boy's mental and social horizon broadens with the processes of education, he will become inquisitive about facts and relations perhaps long before he has direct use for them in the affairs of life. The best question that can be asked in class is the question that the pupil himself asks because he wants to know, and not the question the teacher asks because he thinks the pupil some time in the future ought to know.

(4) For effective social training in the high school more consideration must be given to its organic continuity with the work of the elementary school in the same field. Opinion differs as to the grades when the social studies as such should be introduced, especially in the case of civics. This question is beyond the scope of this committee's consideration, except in its relation to the seventh and eighth years. These years are now in some places included with the ninth year in the junior high school, and must, therefore, be considered in any plan for the reorganization of secondary education. But even where the junior high-school plan is not adopted, the foundations of secondary education must be laid in the years preceding the present high school.

4. *General outline of social studies for secondary schools.*—Assuming that provision has been made for the social aspect of education in Grades I-VI of the elementary school, the following general plan of social studies is proposed for the years VII-XII:

Junior cycle (years VII-IX):

- Geography.
- European history.
- American history.
- Civics.

Senior cycle (years X-XII):

- European history.
- American history.
- Problems of democracy—social, economic, and political.

5. *The "cycle" plan of organization—two three-year cycles preceded by an earlier six-year cycle.*—From the foregoing general outline it will be seen that the course of social studies proposed for the years

VII-IX constitutes a cycle to be followed by a similar cycle in the years X-XII, and presumably preceded by another similar cycle in the six elementary grades. This grouping coincides roughly with the physiological periods of adolescence, but is based chiefly upon the practical consideration that large numbers of children complete their schooling with the sixth grade and another large contingent with the eighth and ninth grades. The course recommended in this report aims to provide a comprehensive, and in a sense complete, course of social study for each period. Those pupils who continue through the third period cover the same cycle provided for in the first and second periods, but with broader horizon, new relations, and more intensive study.

The Philadelphia course of study now in preparation and soon to be published, and the Indianapolis course of study described in Bulletin, 1915, No. 17, United States Bureau of Education, illustrate with variations the cycle organization of the six elementary grades. Within this period the pupils get at least some picture of the development of civilization as typified in the customs, historic personages and dramatic events of ancient and modern nations. They also acquire the simpler elements of American history from the period of exploration to the present time. This historical study is made in close relation with geographical study. Civic and social relations, beginning with the simple relations of home life in the first grade and gradually including the elemental relations of the larger community life, form a continuous phase of the work. In the sixth year of the Philadelphia course emphasis is placed upon economic or vocational relations, largely through a concrete study of occupations. In the Indianapolis course a similar though perhaps less intensive study of occupations is made, chiefly in connection with geography (general and local) and with especial emphasis in the fourth, fifth, and sixth years; while in the sixth year a somewhat systematic though elementary study is made of the more important "elements of community welfare."

With such a course of study, the pupil who leaves school after completing the sixth grade will have acquired some experience with practically the whole range of social studies—history (both ancient and modern, European and American); government in its relations to community welfare; economics in its simpler occupational relations, and also on the side of saving, thrift, conservation; and even sociology in very elementary and concrete terms. Elementary as the course is, and inadequate as it may be from the point of view of the pupil's future social efficiency, it is doubtless all that he can well assimilate at his stage of mental and social growth.

It will now require only a glance at the outline of courses suggested for the years VII-IX and X-XII on pages 5, 6 and 15, of this report to make apparent without further discussion the completeness with which the cycle organization is provided for.

6. *Differentiation of courses.*—The course of study outlined is flexible and permits of differentiation to any extent necessary to meet the needs of characteristic groups of pupils. It is an open question how far such differentiation is desirable, especially in the years VII-IX. It is a fallacy, for example, to imagine that the children of native-born Americans need civic education any less than the children of immigrants; or that the pupils of a school in a purely residential suburb require instruction in industrial history or vocational civics any less than the pupils of a school in an industrial district. But the scope and emphasis of such courses may well vary in the different cases. It is conceivable that in a class of immigrant children more emphasis might be given to American history and less to European history than in a class of native children. In both European and American history the selection of topics for emphasis should, within certain limits at least, be made to meet industrial or other specific needs. As suggested on pages 13-14, community civics needs special adaptation to rural conditions and requirements.

The committee can not emphasize too strongly its belief in the desirability of such careful adjustment of courses to local and current circumstances. It is believed that the flexibility of the course of social studies offered and the principles suggested for the organization of subject matter (see especially under the section on History, pp. 16-17), lends themselves readily to such adjustment.

7. *Adaptation to the 8-4 and 6-3-3 plans of organization.*—The validity of the committee's recommendations and suggestions is not dependent upon the adoption of the junior and senior high-school organization. There is only one point at which the adoption or non-adoption of this organization would seem to make any difference in the completeness with which the course of social studies herein proposed for the years VII-IX could be carried out. If it is true that under the 8-4 organization more pupils are likely to leave school at the end of the eighth year than would be the case under the 6-3-3 organization, it would mean simply that a larger percentage of pupils would fail to complete the cycle of social studies provided for the years VII-IX.

The committee believes, however, that the very nature of its proposed course in civics in the ninth year will tend to keep in school, even under the 8-4 organization, many of those to whom the traditional history courses usually given in the ninth year would offer no inducement to remain. However, it is partly to meet the needs of those who, under either organization, leave school at the end of the eighth year that the committee urgently recommends the inclusion of an elementary course in community civics in that year. This course, if planned with that end in view, will consummate a complete, though necessarily abbreviated, cycle in the years VII-VIII. Let it be repeated, however, that one of the chief purposes of both eighth and ninth year civics should be to provide the pupil with a motive for the continuation of his education.

PART II.—SOCIAL STUDIES FOR THE SEVENTH, EIGHTH AND NINTH YEARS.

(A) ADMINISTRATIVE FEATURES.

Geography, history, and civics are the social studies that find a proper place in the seventh, eighth, and ninth years. The geography should be closely correlated with the history and civics, and should be thoroughly socialized. The history should include European as well as American history. The civics should be of the "community civics" type (see pp. 9-14, following). In addition, it is desirable to emphasize the social aspects of other studies, such as hygiene or other science, and even arithmetic. (For a description of "community arithmetic" see "Civic Education in Elementary Schools as Illustrated in Indianapolis," Bulletin, 1915, No. 17, United States Bureau of Education, pp. 23-26.)

1. *Alternative programs for years VII-IX.*—Opinion and practice vary as to the organization of the social studies in these three years. It is the belief of the committee that the organization should be adapted to local circumstances, and that no one plan should be recommended as best for every case. The following alternative plans are suggested; it is not intended, however, to preclude the possibility of other adjustments that local conditions may require.

Seventh year:

- | | |
|--|--|
| (1) Geography— $\frac{1}{2}$ year. | } These two courses may be taught in sequence, or parallel through the year. |
| European history— $\frac{1}{2}$ year. | |
| Civics—taught as a phase of the above and of other subjects, or segregated in one or two periods a week, or both. | |
| Or, (2) European history—1 year. | } These two courses may be taught in sequence, or parallel through the year. |
| Geography—taught incidentally to, and as a factor in, the history. | |
| Civics—taught as a phase of the above, and of other subjects, or segregated in one or two periods a week, or both. | |

Eighth year:

- | | |
|---|--|
| American history— $\frac{1}{2}$ year. | } These two courses may be taught in sequence, or parallel through the year. |
| Civics— $\frac{1}{2}$ year. | |
| Geography—taught incidentally to, and as a factor in, the above subjects. | |

Ninth year:

- (1) Civics: Continuing the civics of the preceding year, but with more emphasis upon State, national, and world aspects (see pp. 11-12)— $\frac{1}{2}$ year.
 Civics: Economic and vocational aspects (see pp. 12-14)— $\frac{1}{2}$ year.
 History: Much use made of history in relation to the topics of the above courses.
- Or, (2) Civics—economic and vocational.
- | | |
|-------------------|------------------------------------|
| Economic history. | } 1 year, in sequence or parallel. |
| | |

2. *Organization of social studies in the seventh and eighth years.*—The alternative programs given above

suggest three methods of organizing the social studies in the seventh and eighth years.

(a) By the first method, the three social studies run parallel to each other, with more or less direct dependence upon each other, and with a good deal of one subject taught as an aspect of the other two. This method is exemplified in the Indianapolis schools, according to their course of study in geography, history, and civics published in 1914, and explained in Bulletin, 1915, No. 17, United States Bureau of Education. In the seventh year geography occupies three periods a week throughout the year, alternating with European history on the other two days. Civics is taught only as a phase of the geography, history, and other subjects, with more or less attention to it in the opening exercises. In the eighth year United States history occupies three periods a week, alternating with civics on the other two days. Geography is taught in this year only as a factor in the other two subjects. It should be said in passing that while civics does not appear as a distinct subject in the Indianapolis schools until the eighth year, it is systematically taught as an aspect of other subjects throughout the elementary grades beginning with the first.

The aim in the Indianapolis elementary schools seems to be to make of education, not a process of instruction in a variety of subjects, but a process of living, of growth, during which the various relations of life are unfolded—civic, geographical, historical, ethical, vocational, etc. In the first grade, for example, the pupil does not even study "English" or "language" he merely does things, and talks about things, and hears and tells stories about things, the teacher alone being conscious that she is giving the child his first organized lessons in civic life, as well as in the use of the English language. (Civic Education in Elementary Schools as Illustrated in Indianapolis, Bulletin, 1915, No. 17 United States Bureau of Education, p. 9.)

Even in the eighth year, where civics appears as a separate "subject," alternating throughout the year with American history, the co-ordination is so close (in the hands of a skilful teacher) that the pupils are hardly conscious that they are studying two "subjects." They are rather studying certain phenomena of life in two aspects—historical and civic.

It is this aim that gives to the Indianapolis plan its chief distinction. It is perhaps an ideal aim. Its accomplishment, however, requires skilful teaching. It is only fair to say that even in Indianapolis there are principals and teachers who prefer the plan which existed in that city prior to the adoption of the present plan a year or two ago, and who, indeed, still follow it. This plan is next described.

(b) By this second plan the social studies are taken up in sequence. Civics occupies the entire attention (so far as the social studies are concerned) five days in the week, in the last half of the eighth year. It is preceded by the courses in history, and these in turn by geography. Of course geography also appears as an element in the history work, European and American. More or less civics instruction may be given prior to the last half of the eighth grade as a phase of history, geography, and other subjects.

The chief advantage claimed for this plan is the concentration and continuity of interest and attention. It is perhaps particularly important that attention be concentrated upon civics at the time just before the pupils enter high school or leave school altogether. This last argument may doubtless lose some of its force under the Junior High School plan of organization, if it be assumed that the latter would keep pupils in school at least a year longer and would provide further civic training in that year. At all events, of the two plans described, the second is perhaps more likely to be effective in the hands of the great majority of teachers, and especially of those who are inexperienced.

(c) A third general plan of organization, which admits of variations, is characterized by the introduction of civics as a distinct subject in the lower grades for one or more periods a week, and its continuation in increasing amount until the climax is reached in the seventh and eighth years. A plan of this kind is now being developed in Philadelphia. The advantages claimed for it are the cumulative effect of continuous civics instruction through the pupil's early years, and the definiteness secured by fixing attention upon the subject as such, even if for only one or two periods a week, instead of depending upon the interest and skill of the teacher to develop the subject incidentally to the teaching of other subjects.

Objections that have been raised to this plan are (1) the multiplication of "subjects" in the elementary curriculum; (2) the difficulty of maintaining interest and securing effective results from subjects taught one or two periods a week; (3) the belief that the very fact of designating a few periods a week for the study of "civics" would tend to the neglect of the civic aspects of instruction in other subjects. Data are not available to prove the validity of these objections.

3. *Time allotment for civics in years VII-IX.*—An objection has been raised to the amount of civics recommended for the years VII-IX on the ground that it is out of proportion to the time available for the social studies. This objection appears to be due in part to a misconception of the meaning of the term, and of the scope of the work intended to be included under it. The term "community civics" has arisen (it was not invented by this committee) to distinguish the new type of civics from the traditional "civil government," to which the name civics was also applied. Unfortunately, the term has been interpreted by many as applying to a purely local study. From what is said on pages 10 and 11, it should be clear that the committee is not recommending a course, even in the eighth year, that is restricted to a study of "the pupil's own town;" and much less that it is recommending two consecutive years of such study. The proposed ninth year course (see pp. 11-14) is "civics" in that it is a specific course of training for citizenship; it is "community civics" solely in the sense of maintaining the point of view, the spirit, the general method, though not the same content in detail, which characterize the earlier course to which the name has been applied.

Although the committee recommends a course in civics in both eighth and ninth years, it does not necessarily follow that there must be or should be two full years of the subject. The committee has only suggested a half-year course in the eighth year (a daily period for one-half year, or two or three periods a week for the entire year). And while it has suggested a course for the ninth year that, in the committee's opinion, might well occupy the entire year under certain circumstances, this course is capable of adjustment to half-year requirements when conditions make it desirable. (See p. 6).

(B) GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY IN THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH YEARS.

There are here given, with some comment, extracts from the course of study in geography and history in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades of the Indianapolis schools, as published in 1914. These illustrate, as well as anything available to the committee, the socialization of geography and the co-ordination between geography, history, and civics. It has seemed well to include the sixth year in order to show the continuity of method from the elementary to the secondary period and because of its relation to the cycle organization.

Sixth-grade geography.—The geography of this year includes a study of Africa and South America in the first half and of the United States in the second half.

By the time children reach the sixth grade they are sufficiently mature to approach the study of a continent or country with some problem in mind. Facts are needed in the solution of this problem; they should not, however, be given as isolated scraps of knowledge, but should be made to contribute to the working out of the problem.

The most vital problems, however, grow out of current events that stimulate questions in the minds of the children. Therefore problems may change from year to year.

The following may be taken as typical of the problems studied in this year:

1. Considering the proximity of Africa to Europe, why have there been so few settlements and explorations until recently?
2. Egypt was once the leading power of the world, to-day a country of little influence and under the domination of England. Why?
3. No part of the world is attracting more attention than South America. What are the reasons?
4. Brazil, a country nearly as large as the United States and known to European countries for over 400 years, has a population only one-fourth as large as that of the United States and is just beginning to take a prominent part in international affairs. Reasons?
5. What are the factors which have been largely influential in developing the United States into a great industrial nation?

To illustrate the method by which such problems are developed, the following suggestive outline for the fourth problem enumerated above is given:

- I. Why was the development of Brazil so retarded?
 - A. Character and policy of early settlers.
 1. Portuguese influence.
 2. Policy toward Indians.

3. Introduction of slaves and consequent predominance of negro labor.
- B. Location and climate retarded development.
 1. Largely in Southern Hemisphere.
 2. Chiefly in Torrid Zone.
- C. Topography retarded development.
 1. Forests.
 2. Mountains parallel to southeastern coast.
 3. Great plateau beyond wall of woods and rock.
 4. Coastal plain very narrow.
- D. Drainage helped to retard development.
- II. What factors are contributing to its great growth to-day?
 - A. Its location.
 1. In South America.
 - a. All but two countries of South America border on Brazil.
 - b. Great extent of coast line.
 2. Nearer to Europe and North America than the other two progressive countries of South America.
 - B. Topography and climate.
 1. Modification of climate by mountains and table-lands.
 2. Mountains accessible to short railroads connecting inland towns with coast.
 3. Southern part temperate and healthful.
 - C. Character of later settlers.
 1. Over 200,000 Germans in Rio do Sul.
 2. Even greater number of Italians; work on and own coffee plantations.
 3. Portuguese, Spaniards, Syrians, etc.
 - D. Great natural wealth.
 1. Forest resources.
 2. Mines.
 3. Agricultural resources.
 4. Grazing lands.
 - E. Increased transportation facilities.
 1. Development of navigation on the Amazon.
 2. Navigation of Paraguay River.
 3. Few railroads, but increasing in number.
 4. Steamship lines to Europe and North America. Principal harbors and exports.

Sixth-grade history.—The prominence of the historical factor in the geography of this year will be suggested by the typical outline given above. In addition to this "incidental" historical study, the period of discovery and colonization is studied in story form parallel with the geography of the first half year, and that from the Revolution on in the second half year parallel with the geography of the United States. The stories of Livingstone, Cecil Rhodes, Stanley and Kitchener are taken up along with the geography of Africa. A very elementary textbook in history is used for the first time in this grade.

It should be remarked that this sixth-year history work is the culmination of the elementary six-year cycle, which began with a study of the meaning of national holidays and of Hiawatha's childhood in the first two grades, was continued in the third and fourth grades with pioneer stories and biography from American history, and in the fifth grade with the elements of European and Oriental history, based on "Ten Boys." In the fifth grade, also, the modern awakening of Japan is studied, with the story of "Perry and Japan" as a basis.

Seventh-grade geography.—The geography of the first half of the seventh grade is a study of "Some prominent nations of the world," including, for example, Holland, France, Italy, Austria, Hungary, Switzerland, China, Japan, Argentina, Brazil. In the second half of the year, "The world in general," "The conditions of commerce," and "Four great nations of the world—British Empire, German Empire, Russian Empire, the United States"—are the subjects of study. A general geography and a commercial geography are used as texts to supply the material for study. The method of study is the same as in the sixth year. Some typical problems are:

In spite of its size, Holland is one of the great mercantile nations of the world. Show why the Dutch were compelled to seek their fortunes in trade and why they were so successful.

The Argentine Republic has a better opportunity for future development than any other country of South America. Why?

The study of "The world in general" is organized around such topics as—

- The sea, the great commercial highway.
- Causes that give rise to commerce.
- Natural conditions that affect commerce.
- Human control of commerce.
- Means of transportation.

The study of the British Empire is organized around the following main topics:

- Size and population.
- Wide distribution of territory.
- Principal parts of the Empire.
- How the parts are helpful to one another.
- Means of knitting the parts together.
- Relation of the Empire to the rest of the world, especially to the United States.

Among the central topics for the study of the United States are:

- What has caused it to become almost self-sustaining?
- What has caused it to become one of the great commercial powers of the world?
- Its present commercial status.
- Conservation the great problem of the future if the present position at home and abroad is to be maintained.

Seventh-grade history.—Again the strong historical element in the geography of this year is to be noted. History, however, is also given a separate place throughout the year. In the history study geography becomes an essential factor.

Owing to the use of different texts no attempt is made to outline the work in history of the 7B grade in detail. The point of view used in teaching this work should, however, be the same throughout.

In his "Moral principles in education," Dewey says: "History is vital or dead to the child according as it is, or is not, presented from the sociological standpoint. When treated simply as a record of what has passed and gone, it must be mechanical, because the past, as past, is remote. Simply as the past there is no motive for attending to it. The ethical value of history teaching will be measured by the extent to which past events are made the means of understanding the present." No history, therefore, should be treated as though it had meaning or value in itself, but should constantly be made to show its relation or contribution to the present. . . .

In the work of this grade make the children feel that the history of our country is a part of the history of the world and that it had its beginnings many centuries before its discovery. . . .

Accordingly, the elements of European history, which are studied throughout this grade, are organized under the general title, "European beginnings in American history," and are treated as such.

Eighth-grade history.—Geography has no place in this grade as a separate subject, though it is always an important factor in the study of history. The history of this year is American history, taken up systematically in connection with a text. A somewhat full suggestive outline is given in the course of study, but need not be repeated here. The spirit controlling the history instruction in this grade is the same as that which controls in the preceding grade.

The characteristic feature of this year is the introduction of "community civics" as a separate subject throughout the year, and its close co-ordination with the history. This means primarily that the history of the Nation is treated as the story of the growth of a national "community," involving all the "elements of welfare" with which the pupils are made familiar in their civics work, the same development of means of co-operation, especially through government, and so on. More particularly, it means that special aspects of civic life and organization are emphasized in connection with those periods of American history in which they are most significant. The pupils find, for example, that the motives that led to exploration and colonization (whether on the Atlantic coast or in the far West) were the same as those which have led to the development of their own local community and State, and that the process of development is the same in the one case as in the other. Advantage is taken of the period of development of transportation and communication to emphasize the importance of these factors from the point of view of the study of the same topics in civics.

Before leaving the subject of geography and history in the seventh and eighth years, attention should be called to the emphasis that is given in the Indianapolis course of study to economic facts and relations, not only in the subjects of geography and history, but also in civics. This has an important relation to the development of the same field of social study in the later cycle of the years X-XII (see pp. 16, 23).

(C) CIVICS FOR YEARS VII-IX.

1. *Special report on community civics.*—A special committee of the Committee on Social Studies has prepared a detailed report on the aims, methods, and content of community civics adapted particularly to the eighth and ninth grades.¹ This special report has been approved by the Committee on Social Studies,

¹ This committee consisted of J. Lynn Barnard, School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia; F. W. Carrier, Somerville (Mass.) High School; Arthur W. Dunn, specialist in civic education, United States Bureau of Education; and Clarence D. Kingsley, high-school inspector, Massachusetts Board of Education.

adopted as a part of its present general report, and issued as a manual on "The Teaching of Community Civics" in Bulletin, 1915, No. 23, United States Bureau of Education. Its availability in that bulletin makes unnecessary, in the present report, a detailed description of the course and its methods. Some of the essential features, however, are here summarized.

(a) *Significance of the term "community."*—Community civics lays emphasis upon the local community because (1) it is the community with which every citizen, especially the child, comes into most intimate relations, and which is always in the foreground of experience; (2) it is easier for the child, as for any citizen, to realize his membership in the local community, to feel a sense of personal responsibility for it, and to enter into actual co-operation with it, than is the case with the national community.

But our Nation and our State are communities, as well as our city or village, and a child is a citizen of the larger as of the smaller community. The significance of the term "community civics" does not lie in its geographical implications, but in its implication of community relations, of a community of interests. . . . It is a question of point of view, and community civics applies this point of view to the study of the national community as well as to the study of the local community.

(b) *Aims of community civics.*—The aim of community civics is to help the child to know his community—not merely a lot of facts about it, but the meaning of his community life, what it does for him, and how it does it, what the community has a right to expect from him, and how he may fulfill his obligation, meanwhile cultivating in him the essential qualities and habits of good citizenship.

More specifically this aim is analyzed as follows:

To accomplish its part in training for citizenship, community civics should aim primarily to lead the pupil (1) to see the importance and significance of the elements of community welfare in their relations to himself and to the communities of which he is a member; (2) to know the social agencies, governmental and voluntary, that exist to secure these elements of community welfare; (3) to recognize his civic obligations, present and future, and to respond to them by appropriate action.

A unique feature of the method of community civics described in this report lies in the fact that there is the closest relation between these three essential aims and the three steps by means of which each of the main topics is to be taught (see d, below).

(c) *Content of community civics.*—A characteristic feature of community civics is that it focusses attention upon the "elements of community welfare" rather than upon the machinery of government. The latter is discussed only in the light of a prior study of the "elements of welfare," and in relation to them. The "elements of welfare" afford the organizing principle for this new type of civics.

It is suggested that the following elements of welfare be studies as topics: (1) Health; (2) Protection of life and property; (3) Recreation; (4) Education; (5) Civic beauty; (6) Wealth; (7) Communication; (8) Transportation; (9) Migration; (10) Charities; (11) Correction.

In addition, the course may well include the following topics dealing with the mechanism of community agencies: (12) How governmental agencies are conducted; (13) How governmental agencies are financed; (14) How voluntary agencies are conducted and financed.

(d) *Methods of community civics.*—I. Social facts upon which the method should be based:

(1) The pupil is a young citizen with real present interests at stake. . . . It is the first task of the teacher, therefore, not to create an interest for future use, but to demonstrate existing interests and present citizenship.

(2) The pupil as a young citizen is a real factor in community affairs. . . . Therefore it is a task of the teacher to cultivate in the pupil a sense of his responsibility, present as well as future.

(3) If a citizen has an interest in civic matters and a sense of his personal responsibility, he will want to act. Therefore the teacher must help the pupil to express his conviction in word and deed. He must be given an opportunity . . . to live his civics, both in the school and in the community outside.

(4) Right action depends not only upon information, interest, and will, but also upon good judgment. Hence the young citizen must be trained to weigh facts and to judge relative values, both in regard to what constitute the essential elements in a situation and in regard to the best means of meeting it.

(5) Every citizen possesses a large amount of unorganized information regarding community affairs. . . . It is, therefore, important to teach the pupils how to test and organize their knowledge.

(6) People are . . . most ready to act upon those convictions that they have helped to form by their own mental processes and that are based upon their own experience and observation. Hence the teacher should . . . lead the class: (1) To contribute facts from their own experience; (2) To contribute other facts gathered by themselves; (3) To use their own reasoning powers in forming conclusions; and (4) To submit these conclusions to criticism.

(7) The class has the essential characteristics of a community. Therefore the method by which the class exercises are conducted is of the utmost importance in the cultivation of civic qualities and habits. . . .

II. Three steps in teaching an element of welfare:

(1) *Approach to the topic.*—In beginning the study of an element of welfare the teacher should lead the pupils to realize its importance to themselves, to their neighborhood, and to the community, and to see the dependence of the individual upon social agencies. Much depends upon the method of approach. The planning of an approach appropriate to a given topic and applicable to a given class calls for ingenuity and resourcefulness. In this bulletin approaches to various topics are suggested by way of illustration, but the teacher should try to find another approach whenever he thinks the one suggested is not the best one for the class.

(2) *Investigation of agencies.*—The knowledge of the class should now be extended by a concrete and more or less detailed investigation of agencies such as those suggested in the bulletin. These investigations should consist largely of first-hand observation and study of local conditions. The agencies suggested under each topic are so many that no attempt should be made to have the class as a whole study them all intensively. Such an attempt would result in superficiality, kill interest, and defeat the purpose of the course. . . .

(3) *Recognition of responsibility.*—A lesson in community civics is not complete unless it leaves with the pupil a sense of his personal responsibility and results in right action. To attain these ends is perhaps the most difficult and delicate task of the teacher. It is discussed here as the third step in teaching an element of welfare; in practice, however, it is a process coincident with the first two steps and resulting from them. If the work suggested in the foregoing paragraphs on "Approach" and "Investigation of agencies" has been well done, the pupil's sense of responsibility, his desire to act, and his knowledge of how to act will thereby have been developed. Indeed, the extent to which they have been developed is in a measure a test of the effectiveness of the approach and the study of agencies.

2. *Ninth-year civics.*—When provision is made for community civics in the eighth year the way is prepared for work in the ninth year that would not otherwise be possible. The work of the ninth year should build upon, or grow out of, the eighth-year course; but it should have a broader horizon, develop new points of view and new relations, and emphasize aspects of social and civic life that were only lightly touched upon or wholly omitted in the earlier course. Incidentally, also, this ninth-year course should lay substantial foundations for the social studies of succeeding years.

(a) *Amplification of national concepts.*—The reaction against the exclusive and formal study of national government and the increasing attention given to the study of local community relations have resulted in a noticeable tendency to minimize the study of civics in a national sense. It would be inexpressibly unfortunate if the study of local community life and local civic relations should supplant a study of national community life and national civic relations. The two aspects of civic life should clearly supplement each other. While we are impressing the pupil with the importance of his local civic relations and utilizing them as a means of cultivating fundamental civic concepts and habits, we should not allow this to divert attention from the increasingly intimate relations between local and national interests, and the increasing importance of a recognition by the individual of his responsibility for the national welfare.

It is extremely difficult for the average citizen in a democracy to think in terms of national interest, especially when there is any apparent conflict between it and the local or group interest. An illustration of this is seen in the local influence brought to bear upon the members of the National Congress which often prevent them from voting on public questions in the interest of the Nation as a whole when it seems to be antagonistic to the interests of the local districts. Questions of health, of education, of industry, can no longer be considered in their local bearings alone, but must be dealt with in the light of national policy and to the end of national efficiency. As our population grows, means of communication perfected and the interests of the individual more closely interwoven with the interests of others, the opportunities for friction and conflict increase. So much the greater is the necessity for training the pupil to recognize the common general interest in the midst

of conflicting group interests and for cultivating the will to subordinate the latter to the former.

On the other hand, there is another tendency which, though good in itself, sometimes has a tendency to undermine our sense of the importance of national solidarity. This is the conception of "internationalism," of "humanity as greater than its divisions," of a "world community." This conception indeed needs cultivation, as suggested in the following section; but it is necessary to keep our minds upon the elemental fact that before there can be effective "internationalism" there must be efficient and self-respecting nationalism; that the first step toward the realization of a "world community" must be the cultivation of sound ideals, and of efficiency in attaining these ideals, on the part of the several nations which must constitute the "world community."

The word "patriotism" has been much abused; but it is a good word. Instead of avoiding it because of its abuse, and instead of consciously or unconsciously giving young citizens the impression that the thing for which the word stands has somehow lost its significance, every effort should be made to imbue it with real meaning and to make it a potent influence in the development of a sound national life. The committee submits that this should be a definite aim of secondary education, and that one of the means of attaining it is by applying to the study of our national interests, activities, and organization the point of view, the spirit, and the methods of community civics. This may be done in some measure in the eighth year and earlier, but it may be accomplished more fully and more effectively in the ninth year, and later, on the basis of the earlier work.

(b) *Amplification of world interests.*—As individuals within a community, or local communities within a State, or the States constituting the Nation, are dependent upon one another and are bound together into the larger community life by their common interests and co-operative action, so it can easily be shown that nations are becoming more and more closely dependent upon each other. Common world interests need emphasis, world sympathies need cultivation. Pupils will be quite prepared for instruction to this end on the basis of the principles developed in community civics. Such study should be concrete and based upon current events and problems. It offers a socially important line of development, and every available opportunity to this end should be seized upon. (See also under "History," pp. 16, 17.)

(c) *Civic relations of vocational life.*—Still another opportunity presented in the ninth year is for the stressing of the civic relations of vocational life. There is evidence that, as a rule, ninth-year pupils have begun to think more or less earnestly about what they are "going to do," even though they may not have made any connection in their minds between their future vocations and the particular studies they are taking. Much of the mortality that occurs during the eighth and ninth years is due to the failure of pupils and parents to see the economic value of the high-

school course. An opportunity exists to make high-school education seem "worth while" by taking the budding vocational or economic interest as one point of departure.

It is one of the essential qualities of the good citizen to be self-supporting, and through the activities necessary to his self-support to contribute efficiently to the world's progress. Not only is it important that this fact be emphasized in the civic education of the youth, but it is also appropriate that he be given as much enlightenment as possible to assist him in choosing his vocation wisely from the standpoint of social efficiency as well as from that of personal success.

The question of vocational guidance is very much in the foreground at present. While there is general agreement that the young need "guidance" for the vocational aspect of life, as for its other aspects, there is wide divergence of opinion as to the nature of this guidance and the means by which it may best be given. The committee on social studies believes that education as a whole should take account of vocational needs and should contribute to the preparation of the youth for an intelligent choice of vocation and for efficiency in it. As for the ninth-year study now under consideration, the committee is here interested in its vocational guidance aspect only as an incident to the broader social and civic training of the youth. If it can be made to contribute anything to his guidance toward a wise choice of vocation and intelligent preparation for it, it is that much gain.

The chief purpose of the phase of the ninth-year work now being emphasized should be the development of an appreciation of the social significance of all work; of the social value and interdependence of all occupations; of the social responsibility of the worker, not only for the character of his work but for the use of its fruits; of the opportunities and necessity for good citizenship in vocational life; of the duty of the community to the worker; of the necessity for social control, governmental and otherwise, of the economic activities of the community; and of the part that government actually plays in regulating the economic life of the community and of the individual. In other words, the work here proposed is an application of community civics to a phase of individual and community life that is now coming into the foreground of the pupil's interest. It has for its background the earlier work, and differs from it primarily in the larger emphasis given to the economic interest and its resulting activities. The other aspects of community life dealt with in the earlier course should receive renewed attention—the family, the protection of life, health, and property, education, recreation, etc.; but even they may be approached from the point of view of their relations to the activities and arrangements involved in "getting a living."

The term "vocational civics" has been suggested for this phase of the ninth-year work. The term is hardly adequate, however, since it is as important at this time to give instruction regarding the civic responsibility connected with the use of wealth as it is regarding responsibility in its production.

Community civics deals with real situations and relations in the pupil's own life. This vocational or economic phase of the subject should be no exception. It may well be approached through an examination of occupations or industries in which the pupils have some direct interest—those for which the several members of the class have a predilection, those in which their parents are engaged, or those of most importance in the immediate community.

Nowhere has a course in vocational civics been found that seems fully to satisfy the requirements postulated. Some steps have been taken in this direction, however, and, as an illustration of what has actually been done, reference may be made to the work of Superintendent William A. Wheatley, of the Middletown (Conn.) public schools.

"Vocational enlightenment" at Middletown, Conn.—In the Middletown High School a half-year course has been introduced in the first year under the title of "A Survey of Vocations," or "Vocational Enlightenment." It consists of three parts:

1. Consideration of the importance of vocational information from the viewpoint of the individual and society, the characteristics of a good vocation, and how to study vocations.

2. Detailed treatment of 80 or 90 professions, trades, and occupations, grouped under agriculture, commerce, railroading, civil service, manufacturing, machine trades, engineering, building trades, learned professions, miscellaneous and new openings.

3. Practical discussion of choosing a life work, preparation for that work, securing a position, and efficient service and its reward.

In studying each of the vocations selected, we touch upon its healthfulness, remuneration, value to society, and social standing, as well as upon the natural qualifications, general education, and special preparation necessary for success. We investigate at first hand as many as possible of the vocations found in our city and vicinity. Each pupil is encouraged to bring from home first-hand and, as far as practicable, "inside" facts concerning his father's occupation. Local professional men, engineers, business men, manufacturers, mechanics, and agriculturists are invited to present informally and quite personally the salient features of their various vocations.

In the class exercise of the mechanical engineer such topics as these are discussed:

Which of the three engineers so far studied renders society the greatest service? Which is most necessary to your own community? Which one's work seems most attractive? What natural qualifications, general education, and special training are necessary? What subjects should constitute a high-school course preparatory to this profession? What subjects do the best technical schools demand for entrance? What advantages and disadvantages are there in preparing for this profession in a co-operative school and shop course? What kind of work during the summer would serve best to determine aptitude for it? Difference between expert machinist and mechanical engineer? What is a contracting engineer? etc.

Superintendent Wheatley says of this course that—

Besides being intrinsically interesting to the pupils, it gives them greater respect for all kinds of honorable work, helps them to choose more wisely their life work, convinces them of the absolute necessity for a thorough preparation

before entering any vocation, and holds to the end of the high-school course many who would otherwise drop out early in the race.

The committee would encourage experiment along this line. It would, however, repeat its suggestion that in the further development of such course particular attention be given to its broader social and civic implications; that instruction in vocations from the point of view of individual success be made not the end but a means to a more fundamental social education. The approach should be through a consideration of the services rendered by any particular vocation rather than from the point of view of remuneration. It is a principle no less important that the vocation, if it plays its true part in the life of the individual, is the chief means for the development of personality; consequently the pupil should be taught to seek a vocation that will call forth his best efforts. There should be something of the personal challenge in "vocational enlightenment."

3. Adaptation of community civics to rural conditions.—Community civics has been developed principally to meet urban needs. There is need for an adaptation of the subject to rural conditions. The community relations of the rural youth are different from those of the city youth. In a sense they are simpler. They also seem more vague. Their very simplicity apparently adds to the difficulty of developing a systematic course in community civics. Furthermore, the teachers in rural schools are often less experienced and less readily recognize the opportunities and materials for civic training.

Prof. J. F. Smith, of the Berea College (Ky.) Normal School, has successfully developed a course in community civics to meet local rural conditions. One of his lesson plans on roads is given in Bulletin, 1915, No. 23, United States Bureau of Education, page 39, and is here reproduced because of its suggestiveness.

In this study numerous photographs were used, walks were taken over good and bad roads, and the pupils and teachers actually did a piece of road work.

Study and report on condition of roads in the community. Draw a map of the community, indicating roads. Which are dirt roads, rock roads, other kinds? Which are well graded, well crowned? Note side ditches; are they adequate? Note culverts and bridges. Estimate miles of road in the community, public and private.

Study road-making material in the community. Note places where limestone is found; sandstone, slate, gravel. Are these materials accessible?

Find out cost of hauling in the community. Consult wagoners and learn charges per 100 pounds for freight and farm produce. Can farmers afford to market produce at present cost of cartage? Find out how much freight is hauled into the community annually and compute amount paid for this. How long will wagon and set of harness last on the roads? How long on good roads? Difference in cost for 10 years. How much could people who buy supplies afford to spend on road upkeep each year in order to cut down freight rates?

Compare cost of hauling here with cost in European countries where the best roads exist. What overtax do the people have to pay? Note that this overtax is in the form of higher prices for household necessities and in smaller profits for farm produce.

Road building: Determine kind of road; the location; grades; how grades affect the haul; the drainage level and steep roads, side ditches; culverts, subdrainage, crown; actual construction, tools, funds, means employed.

Road maintenance: Kind of material to use; regular attention necessary; the tools.

What good roads mean to a community; the economic problem. How they enhance the value of land. Means of communication. Better social life.

The history of the development of roads, canals, and railways in your State and in the Nation, in its relation to the growth of community spirit and co-operation, will be fruitful. What effect did the steam railway have upon the development of canals? Why? Show how the Panama Canal tends to unite our Nation more firmly. Study the problems of rapid transportation in cities and their relation to various phases of city life. Also the effects of the parcel post and of electric interurban lines on the welfare of farmers and city dwellers. Make a comprehensive study of the work of the Federal Government in promoting and safeguarding transportation. The ship-purchase bill and the Government ownership of railways and of street railway lines afford material for discussion and debate.

It is probable that the rural citizen comes into direct contact with State and National Governments with greater relative frequency than does the urban citizen, whose life is largely regulated by the municipality. Under the topic, "Protection of property," for example, the following discussion was introduced in rural classes in Delaware:

The United States Department of Agriculture, in a recent report, estimates that \$795,100,000 worth of damage was done by insects to the crops of this country in a single year. What insects, birds, and animals are destructive of property in your community? What plant and animal diseases are prevalent in your locality or State? Investigate the work of your State agricultural college to prevent loss from these causes. (Get reports and other publications directly from the college. Ask the children whether their fathers receive publications.) Is there any department of your State government or any State officer whose work contributes to the protection of property against such enemies? Investigate and report on the work of the Federal Department of Agriculture for the protection of property against destruction by the causes named. Why should the Federal Government interest itself in this matter in your community? (Reports on this subject may be obtained directly from the department. These reports may also be in your local library.) Protection of birds; value to the farmer of insect-eating birds.

Under "Fire protection" the following topics were developed in the same classes:

Show how the farmer is largely dependent upon his own efforts and the friendly co-operation of neighbors? Contrast with the elaborate arrangement in cities. Why the difference? Point out the extreme importance of fire prevention in rural communities. Value of the telephone as a means of fire protection. If you live in a village or a small town, describe the arrangements for fire protection; method of alarm; water supply; bucket brigade; volunteer companies; etc. Compare with the conditions of the farm and of large cities. Have the children find out whether their fathers' property is insured. In what companies? Where are the main offices of these companies? (Probably in distant cities or States.) Discuss the methods of insurance, to show the wide-spread co-operation through the payment of premiums. Is there a grange in your community? Does it provide a means of insurance? If so, describe it.

Under loss from storm, flood, frost, etc.:

Is it possible to get insurance against loss from such causes? Do any of your parents have insurance of this kind? What relation do the weather reports issued by the National Government have to the protection of property? Does your father receive weather reports by mail? If not, where may you find these reports? Investigate and report on the work of the Weather Bureau. (Information may be obtained directly from the Weather Bureau, Department of Agriculture, Washington.)

Urban conditions should not be entirely neglected even in rural schools, because rural life and urban life are closely dependent upon each other. The material selected for study, however, should be related to the child's experience as far as possible. For example, in rural schools in the neighborhood of Wilmington, Del., the following statement from the report of the Wilmington Board of Health was made a basis for discussion:

During the year 1914 there were 142 cases of typhoid fever, with 122 deaths. Our report for this year shows an increase of 76 cases over the previous year. This increase was due to the prevalence of typhoid in New Castle County, and we feel that Wilmington was particularly fortunate in not having an epidemic, as practically all milk and vegetable products supplied to Wilmington come from this agricultural district.

Again, from the report of the Wilmington City Board of Health was taken the classification of municipal waste into garbage, ashes, rubbish, and trade waste, with the requirement that these be kept separate:

Compare these provisions for the city of Wilmington with the needs and conditions of a small community like your own. Refer to what is said about other cities and compare with conditions and arrangements in your own town. How is the garbage from your home disposed of? Is it done by public provision or left to the individual householder? Whether it is done publicly or privately, note the necessity for co-operation on the part of the people. Is the garbage removed in a way to protect health and to avoid annoyance to your own families and neighbors? Is it important that garbage and other kinds of waste be kept separate in a small community? Are there laws or ordinances in your town to regulate the matter of garbage? What means can you think of to improve your own home methods of caring for garbage?

4. *Relation of civics to history.*—The co-ordination of geography, history, and civics instruction in the years VII-IX and earlier has been referred to in preceding pages (pp. 6-8). The application to instruction in history of the principles which have already vitalized instruction in civics is discussed in detail in later pages (pp. 16, 17). The principles there discussed, the committee believes, are equally pertinent to history instruction in both junior and senior cycles. The purpose of the present section is to emphasize the peculiar value of the civics proposed for the junior cycle from the standpoint of historical study.

History as it is usually taught in the first year of the high school is no better adapted to the educational requirements of that age than the old-time civil government. The committee further maintains that, even from the standpoint of the subsequent high-school courses in history, the latter should be pre-

ceded by a course in civics of the type described above. Children live in the present and not in the past. The past becomes educational to them only as it is related to the present. Hero stories and pioneer stories from history are of use in the early grades because children react naturally to them. Individuals are interested in the history of government, of education, of commerce, of industry, or of democracy, in proportion as they have a present interest in these things. Community civics endeavors to establish a consciousness of present community relations before discussing the more remote development of these relations.

On the other hand, the history of a thing may add to its present interest. Railroads assume a new significance when compared with the means of transportation in colonial times, or with the road system of the Roman Empire. Community civics affords opportunity for the actual use of much historical matter, for the development of the "historical sense," and for the creation of a desire to know more history. The best time to introduce history in the education of the child is when it is of immediate use. The traditional history course has given to the child a mass of facts, chronologically arranged, because, in the judgment of the adult, these facts may some time be useful, or for the purposes of that vague thing, "general culture." Community civics affords opportunity to use history to illuminate topics of immediate interest.

Local history finds its best opportunity in connection with community civics. There is hardly a topic in community civics that may not be made clearer by looking back to the simpler stages of its development. For developing an appreciation of what history means and for giving historical perspective to the present, local history is as useful as any other history. The most effective courses in community civics make large use of local history. In 1910 the work of keeping Philadelphia clean was—

largely in the hands of a bureau of surveys, which has constructed over 1,200 miles of sewers at a cost of nearly \$35,000,000, and of a bureau of highways and street cleaning, which, in 1909, employed a contractor to clean the streets of the city and to remove all ashes for \$1,199,000; and to remove all garbage for \$488,988.

Nothing could make so clear the statement that this complex and costly machinery of government is merely a means of citizen co-operation as the incident given in the autobiography of Benjamin Franklin, early citizen of Philadelphia:

One day I found a poor industrious man, who was willing to undertake keeping the pavement clean, by sweeping it twice a week, carrying off the dirt from before all the neighbors' doors, for the sum of sixpence per month, to be paid by each house. I then wrote and printed a paper setting forth the advantages to the neighborhood that might be obtained by this small expense; . . . I sent one of these papers to each house, and in a day or two went around to see who would subscribe an agreement to pay these sixpences; it was unanimously signed, and for a time well executed. This raised a general desire to have all the streets paved, and made the people more willing to submit to a tax for that purpose.

General history also finds its use. The topics set forth below are given as a mere suggestion.

Under the topic Health:

Conceptions of disease as found among uncivilized peoples, the ancients, and in mediæval times.

Alchemy and the development of a knowledge of medicine.

Development of sanitation; sanitary conditions in mediæval cities.

Greek ideal of physical development, gymnasiums and other means of perfecting the body.

Important discoveries: Circulation of the blood, surgery and anesthetics, bacteria and germs, disinfectants.

Under the topic Education:

Of what the education of the youth consisted among savages, barbarous, and ancient peoples.

Among such peoples, were all the youth educated or only certain classes?

Show how, among the savage Australians, the barbarous American Indians, the ancient Spartans, education was adapted to existing needs of life.

What kinds of schools existed among such peoples, and who were the teachers?

The part taken by the church in education in the Middle Ages.

Founding of the great universities in Europe and America.

Growth of public education in Europe and the United States.

How the decay of the apprentice system has led to a need for industrial education in the public schools.

Under the topic Recreation:

Primitive customs dancing and music.

Public games in Greece and Rome.

Drama and the theater among the ancients.

Means of amusement in the Middle Ages.

Bards and troubadours.

Attitude of the Puritans toward recreation.

Comparison of forms of recreation in different countries.

Description and purposes of pageants.

Under the topics Transportation and Trade:

Early methods of trading and transportation; barter, market places, caravans, sailing vessel, etc.

The period of exploration and discovery.

Early trade routes and road building.

Periods of canal and railroad building.

Application of steam to land and water travel.

Discoveries and inventions relating to transportation and communication.

Under the topic Charities:

Provision made for widows, orphans, and the poor among the ancient Jews and Mohammedans.

Bread lines in Rome and their effects.

Treatment of beggars and diseased paupers in Eastern countries and in mediæval Europe and England.

Attitude of the church toward the poor.

Description of poorhouses by Dickens.

Condition of poorhouses in America 50 years ago.

5. *Summary.*—Community civics is a course of training in citizenship, organized with reference to the pupil's immediate needs, rich in its historical, sociological, economic, and political relations, and affording a logical and pedagogically sound avenue of approach to the later social studies.

PART III.—SOCIAL STUDIES FOR YEARS X-XII.

(A) GENERAL ADMINISTRATIVE FEATURES.

1. *General outline.*—The committee recommends as appropriate to the last three years of the secondary school the following courses:

I. *European history to approximately the end of the seventeenth century*—1 year. This would include ancient and oriental civilization, English history to the end of the period mentioned, and the period of American exploration.

II. *European history (including English history) since approximately the end of the seventeenth century*—1 (or $\frac{1}{2}$) year.

III. *American history since the seventeenth century*—1 (or $\frac{1}{2}$) year.

IV. *Problems of American democracy*—1 (or $\frac{1}{2}$) year.

These courses clearly repeat the cycle of social study provided for in years VII-IX. The principle of organization suggested in the pages following for all of these courses makes them extremely flexible and easily adaptable to the special needs of different groups of pupils, or of different high-school curriculums (commercial, scientific, technical, agricultural, etc.)

2. *Time allotment and minimum essentials.*—The course of social studies here outlined would constitute, if all were taken, from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 units, dependent upon whether one or one-half year is allotted to each of the last three courses. The committee believes that there should be a social study in each year of the pupil's course. It is, however, conscious of the difficulty presented by the present requirements of the high-school program. The question then arises as to what would constitute a minimum course of social study under these existing conditions. To this question the committee would reply:

(a) The minimum essentials of the year X-XII should be determined by the needs of the particular pupil or group of pupils in question.

(b) Other things being equal, it would seem desirable for the pupil, whose time in the last three years is limited, to take those social studies which would most directly aid him to understand the relations of his own social life. If, for example, he had but one year out of the three for social study, and there were no special reason for deciding otherwise, it is probable that he might better take a half year of American history and a half year of European history (courses II and III); or, a half year of American history and a half year of the twelfth-year study of social problems (courses III and IV). The choice among these might be influenced by the trend taken by his social study in the ninth year (see the alternative possibilities of the ninth-year work).

(c) If the principles advocated in the following pages of this report for the organization of instruction in the social studies be adhered to, the apparent incompleteness of the cycle of social study, due to the impracticability of taking all the courses offered, will be in some degree obviated. Briefly stated, this means that any course of history instruction should be so organized that the pupil will inevitably acquire some

familiarity with the economic, social, and civic factors in community life, just as in the study of civics or of social problems he should inevitably learn much history by using it.

(B) HISTORY.

I. GENERAL STATEMENT OF PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION.

1. *Reasons for the proposed organization of history courses.*—The committee recommends the organization of the history course in two or three units as indicated in the general outline on page 35 in view of the following considerations:

(1) In small high schools more than two units of history are impracticable; and in large high schools, where more could be offered, few pupils would (or do) take more than two units, and these often unrelated.

(2) The long historical period included in course I offers a wide range of materials from which to select, and makes possible the development of topics continuously and unhampered by chronological and geographical limitations.

(3) The assignment of an equal amount of time (or twice the time if a year is given to each of courses II and III) to the period since the seventeenth century as to the period prior to that time, expresses the committee's conviction that recent history is richer in suitable materials for secondary education than the more remote periods, and is worthy of more intensive study.

(4) The history of any two years that a pupil may elect under this plan will be related; that of courses II and III is contemporaneous and presents many points of contact, and that of either course II or III is continuous with that of course I.

(5) Under the present four-unit plan a premium is placed upon ancient and American history, all that goes between being left largely to chance. Under the plan proposed by the committee a much larger proportion of the pupils will secure the benefits of a study of the essentials of European history.

(6) It is important to remember that the cycle of history provided for in the years X-XII will have been once traversed, on narrower lines, in the years VII-IX. Consequently, the pupils who for any reason can not complete the cycle in the year X-XII will not be wholly deficient in the knowledge of any of its parts.

(7) Although many teachers are at present inadequately prepared to follow the method of instruction advocated by the committee, which requires the selection of materials on the basis of the pupils' own immediate interests and of current problems (see below), the compression of a longer historical period into a briefer course will bring pressure to bear to induce a more careful selection of facts and events for emphasis.

2. *Organization of subject matter within history courses.*—Within each course the committee recommends—

(1) The adoption to the fullest extent possible of a "topical" method, or a "problem" method, as opposed to a method based on chronological sequence alone.

(2) The selection of topics or problems for study with reference to (a) the pupil's own immediate interest; (b) general social significance.

Concrete suggestion as to what the committee means by these criteria is given in the following pages, especially in the three type lessons on pages 20-22.

The organization of history instruction on this basis unquestionably requires greater skill on the part of the teacher than the traditional method, less dependence upon a single textbook of the types now existent, and larger use of many books, or of encyclopedic books, for reference purposes. If the selection of materials is to be determined by immediate interests and current problems, it is manifestly impossible to furnish in advance a detailed and complete outline of topics for universal and invariable use. To attempt to do so would be contrary to the very spirit of the method. Whether Miss Harris, for example, should dwell at length upon the War of 1812 and the subjects of the rights of neutrals (see p. 20), could not be determined for her in advance by a committee, nor even by an international lawyer to whom the question might seem of profound importance. The matter was determined for her by the exigencies of the hour and the interests of her pupils. So, also, was the method by which she approached and unfolded the subject.

On the other hand, there are certain topics that approach universality and invariability in their application. It is hardly conceivable, for example, that Miss Dilks could have omitted a study of "Athens—the City Beautiful" (see p. 20). The love for the beautiful is universal. In varied forms it is common to the pupils in the class, and to all communities, nations, peoples and times. Athens represents a climax in the development of esthetics. But the feature that especially characterizes Miss Dilks's lesson is the method by which she brought "Athens—the City Beautiful" into the range of the pupil's own interest and experience and made it a direct means for the further cultivation of a fundamental interest in their lives.

In this there is suggested a possible organizing principle for history that is at once scientific and especially effective in teaching pupils who have had a course in community civics of the type described earlier in this report. This organizing principle is found in the "elements of welfare" or "fundamental interests," which afford an effective basis for the organization of the latter subject. It is a subjective rather than an objective basis. In the case just cited the pupils themselves have a more or less developed esthetic interest, which expresses itself in various elemental ways and reacts to conditions in the immediate community. This interest is common to all mankind and finds expression in a great variety of ways. It expressed itself in a remarkable manner

among the Greeks, who developed certain standards of beauty that have profoundly influenced the world since their time.

Already the principle of organization here suggested is being adopted more or less completely in the treatment of one great phase of history—that which relates to the “economic interest” and is expressed in economic or industrial history. Not all industrial history has been written on this basis of organization. Reference is made to the type of industrial history to which Prof. Robinson evidently refers in the statement quoted on page 22 of this report and which is clearly illustrated in the lesson described by Miss Hazard (p. 21). The same principle is applied in the course suggested by Dr. Leavitt and Miss Brown in their chapter on history in “Prevocational Education in the Public Schools.”²

But boys and girls, even in vocational and prevocational classes, have fundamental interests other than the economic. They are the interests or “elements of welfare” that serve as the organizing principle of community civics—physical, economic, intellectual, esthetic, religious, and social. Their relative prominence varies among nations as among individuals, partly because of temperament and partly because of physical and social influences; but the story of the life of any nation is the story of effort to provide for them. The life history of a nation, as of any community, consists of two great lines of endeavor which are, of course, closely interrelated: (1) The endeavor to establish permanent and definite relations with the land, which involves the geographical factor, and (2) the endeavor to establish effective means of co-operation to provide for the “elements of welfare,” which involves the evolution of a form of government. The committee merely raises the question as a basis for discussion and experiment whether the principle of organization here suggested may not do as much to vitalize instruction in history as it has already done to vitalize instruction in government under the name of community civics.

3. *Important aims in teaching history.*—(1) A primary aim of instruction in American history should be to develop a vivid conception of American nationality, a strong and intelligent patriotism, and a keen sense of the responsibility of every citizen for national efficiency. It is only on the basis of national solidarity, national efficiency (economic, social, political), and national patriotism that this or any nation can expect to perform its proper function in the family of nations.

(2) One of the conscious purposes of instruction in the history of nations other than our own should be the cultivation of a sympathetic understanding of such nations and their peoples, of an intelligent appreciation of their contributions to civilization, and of a just attitude toward them. So important has this seemed that a proposal has recently been made that

one year of the history course be supplanted by a course to be known as “A Study of Nations.”³

In suggesting such a study, Clarence D. Kingsley says:

The danger to be avoided above all others is the tendency to claim that one nation has a sweeping superiority over others. The claim of such superiority, as among individuals, is a sure cause of irreconcilable hatred. The cure for this narrow and partisan attitude is to be found in the broad conception that humanity is greater than any one nation. The idea should be developed that every nation has, or may have, something of worth to contribute to other nations, and to humanity as a whole. This conception when thoroughly inculcated would lead to a national respect for other nations, and to the belief that the continued existence and development of all nations are essential to the development of civilization. We can not expect that a principle so fundamental and comprehensive can be inculcated in the abstract; but through a specific study of many nations, the achievements and possibilities of each of which have been studied in the concrete, this idea may become established.

This conception of the supplementary value of the dissimilarities of the different nations and peoples, together with the ideal of human brotherhood, which is generally thought of in terms of essential similarity, should do much to establish genuine internationalism, free from sentiment, founded on fact, and actually operative in the affairs of nations.

This “Study of nations,” as Mr. Kingsley sees it, instead of focusing attention upon the past, would start frankly with the present of typical modern nations—European, South American, oriental—and would use history in explanation of these nations and of clearly defined problems of supreme social importance at the present time. Not only would the use of history organized in this way, according to Mr. Kingsley, “tend to reduce friction in international relations, as such friction often results from popular clamor, born of a lack of understanding of foreign nations,” but “it would help to a truer understanding and appreciation of the foreigners who come to our shores,” and “it would lead us to be more helpful in our relations with backward peoples, because it would help us to value them on the basis of their latent possibilities, rather than on the basis of their present small achievements.”

(3) In connection with the several history courses, and especially in connection with courses II and III, due attention should be given to Latin America and the Orient, especially Japan and China, and to great international problems of social, economic, and political importance to America and the world at large.

II. DETAILED DISCUSSION OF PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING HISTORY INSTRUCTION.

1. *The position of history in the curriculum.*—History, which has long occupied the center of the stage among the social studies of the high school, is facing competition not only from other branches of study,

² Leavitt and Brown, *Prevocational Education in the Public Schools*, chap. viii. Houghton Mifflin Co.

³ Kingsley, Clarence D., *The Study of Nations: Its Possibilities as a Social Study in High Schools*. School and Society, Vol. III, pp. 37-41, Jan. 8, 1916.

such as science, but also from other social studies. The customary four units, which have been largely fixed in character by the traditions of the historian and the requirements of the college, are more or less discredited as ill adapted to the requirements of secondary education.

In a recent address Miss Jessie C. Evans, of the William Penn High School for Girls, Philadelphia, said:

There is a growing danger that the traditional history course will only be permitted to the college-preparatory student. I visited, the other day, one of the largest high schools in the country and found that the majority of the students took no history at all. The new definitions of culture and the new demands for efficiency are causing very severe tests to be applied to any subject that would hold its own in our schools.

This statement suggests certain questions:

2. *To what extent and in what ways are college requirements and life requirements mutually exclusive?*—In this connection the words of Prof. Dewey quoted on page 4 are repeated with an interpolation:

If we could really believe that attending to the needs of present growth would keep the child and teacher alike busy and would also provide the best possible guarantee of the learning needed in the future [in college or elsewhere], transformation of educational ideals might soon be accomplished, and other desirable changes would largely take care of themselves.

The problem of articulation between elementary and secondary schools, on the one hand, and between secondary schools and colleges, on the other, would take care of itself if elementary school, secondary school, and college would each give proper attention to the needs of present growth.

3. *To what extent does an increase in the amount of history offered insure more universal or better social education?*—The historical training acquired by the pupils is not proportional to the number of courses offered. Whether pupils elect history or not depends, first, upon whether they want it; and, second, upon the demands of other subjects upon their time. Those who are concerned for the prestige of history in the school program will find that their gains by adding courses are largely "on paper." In small high schools more than two or three units of history are impracticable; and in large schools few pupils take more than two units of the subject, these frequently disconnected; the majority take only what is required. Two or three units of history are ample in these years, provided they are adapted to the needs of the pupil and have been preceded by the cycle which this report recommends for the years VII-IX (see p. 6).

4. *What "tests" must the history course meet if it is "to hold its own in our schools?"*—It is true that "the new definitions of culture and the new demands for efficiency are causing very severe tests to be applied" to all subjects, and the traditional type of history is in danger because it fails to meet the tests.

The ideal history for each of us would be those facts of past human experience to which we should have recourse oftenest in our endeavors to understand ourselves and our

fellows. No one account would meet the needs of all, but all would agree that much of what now passes for the elements of history meets the needs of none. No one questions the inalienable right of the *historian* to interest himself in any phase of the past that he chooses. It is only to be wished that a greater number of historians had greater skill in hitting upon those phases of the past which serve us best in understanding the most vital problems of the present.—(Prof. James Harvey Robinson, in *The New History*.)

The italics in this quotation are our own. It is the chief business of the maker of the course of study, the textbook writer, and the teacher to do what the historian has failed to do, viz, to "hit upon those phases of the past which serve us" (the high-school pupil) "best in understanding the most vital problems of the present." Further, "the most vital problems of the present" for the high-school pupil are the problems which he himself is facing now or which are of direct value to him in his present processes of growth.

Prof. Mace has made the following statement:

To connect events and conditions with life as the pupil knows it will make history more or less of a practical subject. The pupil will see where his knowledge turns up in the affairs of everyday life. He will really discover how present-day institutions came to be what they are. Whenever or wherever he strikes a point in history, in Egypt, Greece, Rome, England, or even America, the point must be connected with modern life. Otherwise it may have only a curious or perhaps an academic interest for him, or it may have no interest whatever.

This connection may be worked out in several ways. The Egyptians had certain ideas about immortality, and therefore certain customs of burial. The Greeks probably took these up and modified them. The Romans changed them still further, especially after the coming of Christ. The Roman Catholic Church made still greater changes. The Reformation introduced new conceptions of the soul after death, and to-day the great variety of ideas on the subject show the tremendous differentiations that have come since the days of old Egypt. Likewise, it shows how tenacious the idea has been—its continuity. How much interest is aroused if the student is put to working out this problem of the life development of an idea! What sort of history is this? It is neither ancient, medieval, or modern, but all these in one. It is the new kind of general history—the kind that socializes the student. It makes him feel that history has some meaning when he sees ancient ideas functioning in the present.

Not every idea in history lends itself to such treatment. Many facts have not preserved their continuity in as perfect a way, but seem to have lost it before modern life is reached. But there is another relation—that of similarity. The reforms of Solon in Greece and of the Gracchi in Rome, the causes of Wat Tyler's rebellion, the measures of Lloyd George in England to-day, and the social-justice idea of the Progressive platform in the Presidential campaign of 1912 bear striking resemblance to each other. While they can not be connected by progressive evolution, they are richly suggestive in the lessons they teach.

Again, many events whose continuity we may not be able to trace have valuable lessons growing out of their dissimilarity. By making note of their contrasts we may see their bearing on modern life. The terrible Thirty Years' War, the Puritan Revolution, the Revolution of 1688, the American Revolution, and finally the French Revolution, present such striking contrasts as to give the student some

notion of what might have been avoided for the betterment of the people. This means that when one of these upheavals is studied the rest should be made to yield their particular points of contrast, to the end that the student may see the lessons they present.

Another contribution to the discussion is the following, by Prof. Robinson. A portion of this is italicized for future reference.

One of our chief troubles in teaching history comes from the old idea that history is a record of past events; whereas our real purpose nowadays is to present past conditions, explain them so far as we can, and compare them with our own. . . .

While events can be dealt with chronologically, conditions have to be presented topically if they are to become clear. For example, we can select the salient events of the Crusades, and tell them in the form of a story; but the medieval church, castle, monastery, and farm have to be described in typical forms, as they lasted several centuries. The older textbooks told the events more or less dryly, gave the succession of kings, and the battles and treaties of their respective reigns. It was not deemed necessary to describe conditions and institutions with any care, and such terms as pope, king, bishop, church, baron, alchemy, astrology, witchcraft, were used as if every boy or girl of 14 knew exactly what they were.

A still unsolved problem is to determine what conditions and institutions shall be given the preference, considering the capacity of the student on the one hand and the limitations of time on the other. The committee should not undertake to pronounce on this matter, but should urge that teachers and textbook writers should be constantly asking themselves whether what they are teaching seems to them worth while. . . .

All instruction is, so to speak, the function of three variables—the pupils, the teacher, and the textbook. Every teacher is aware that pupils differ a good deal according to their environment, and, as we develop industrial and other forms of special education, it will be necessary to select our material to meet the special needs of the pupils. As for the teacher, no satisfactory results will be obtained until he learns to outrun the textbook and becomes really familiar, through judicious reading or university instruction, with the institutions which he proposes to deal with. Teachers should learn to deal with their subject topically, and should not be contented with reading historical manuals, which are usually poor places to go for information in regard to conditions and institutions. They should turn to the articles in the Encyclopedia Britannica and other similar works and to special treatments.

5. *Two questions at issue.*—There is general agreement that history, to be of value in the education of the boy or girl, must "function in the present." Disagreement arises over two questions: (1) What is meant by "functioning in the present?" (2) How shall the material of history be organized to this end?

(1) *What is meant by functioning in the present?*—There are two interpretations of this phrase: (a) The sociological interpretation, according to which it is enough if history be made to explain present conditions and institutions; (b) the pedagogical interpretation, according to which history, to be of value educationally, must be related to the present interests of the pupil. Many present-day problems are as far removed from the interests and experience of youth as if they belonged to the most remote historical epoch. It is not that a past event has its results, or

its counterpart, or its analogy, or its contrast, in the present, that gives it its chief educational value, but that it "meets the needs of present growth" in the pupil. We have learned to use hero stories and pioneer stories from any epoch of history in certain elementary grades because there is something in children that makes them want such stories as food for growth.

Recent periods are doubtless richer in materials of present application than the more remote periods. But children have very little chronological perspective. As one star seems as far away as another, although millions of miles may intervene between them, so American colonization may seem as remote to the child as the period of Athenian supremacy. The relative educational value of the wars of 1775, 1812, and 1861 does not depend upon their remoteness or proximity. It does not necessarily follow from the fact that trusts are a live, present issue, and Negro slavery came to an end 50 years ago, that the slavery agitation preceding the Civil War is of less educational value than the agitation regarding the control of trusts at the present time.

Do not these considerations suggest a basis for a partial answer at least to Prof. Robinson's "still unsolved problem," stated above, viz, "to determine what conditions and institutions shall be given the preference," and to his question, "What is worth while?" The principle may be stated thus: *The selection of a topic in history and the amount of attention given to it should depend, not merely upon its relative proximity in time, nor yet upon its relative present importance from the adult or from a sociological point of view, but also and chiefly upon the degree to which such topic can be related to the present life interests of the pupil, or can be used by him in his present processes of growth.*

The committee does not imagine, however, that by stating this principle it has solved the problem of the organization of the history course. It has only recognized a new and most important factor in the problem. By so doing, it has even made the problem more difficult, for there are now raised the new questions, What history does meet the needs of the child's growth? And how may a given topic be related to the child's interest? Acceptance of the principle throws the problem largely back upon the teacher, for the questions just stated are questions that she must answer for her particular group of pupils, and can not be disposed of once for all by a jury of historians or sociologists. The problem is only in part one of selection of topics; it is also one of method of approach. A topic that may be infused with vitality by a proper approach through the interests of the children may become perfectly barren of results through lack of such approach. (See discussion of the question of "Approach" in relation to the teaching of civics in this report.)

Illustrations of the principle.—The following type lessons illustrate, more or less perfectly, the application of this principle. The first is given by Miss Hannah M. Harris, of the State Normal School at

Hyannis, Mass., and illustrates both the selection of topic and the method of approach with reference to the pupils' immediate interest.

Ordinarily we have regarded the War of 1812 as not closely related to those interests (of the children) nor essential to the development of the central theme of the term, "The building of the Nation;" hence we have passed over the subject rather lightly, and have saved time for the more intensive study of the Revolution and the making of the Constitution, topics which are necessary to the central theme, and which can be made real to the children by means of their activities in a school club. This club makes and amends its own constitution, earns money, votes its expenditures; in short, manages its own affairs on democratic principles, and so brings home to its members the meaning of certain political terms and situations involved in these topics, such as taxation without representation, majority rule, compromises, etc.

In 1915, however, the subject of the War of 1812 appeared to us in a different light. The children were reading headlines in the newspapers in which the word "neutrality" had a conspicuous place. They heard the word repeated at home and on every street corner, and were beginning to use it themselves, though with but vague notions of its meaning. Consequently the preceding topic in the history course was less fully treated than in ordinary years, and time was appropriated for a study of the War of 1812.

The study was approached in the following way: What is meant by the expression "a neutral nation," "belligerent nation"? What nations are now belligerent? Which ones neutral? What are some of the ways in which the citizens of a neutral nation come into contact with the citizens or with the government of a belligerent nation? (Some of the answers: "Buy things of them"; "sell them goods"; "have our goods carried in their ships"; "travel in their countries.") So long as any nation remains neutral, what rights have its citizens in these matters and others? (So far answers all came from previous knowledge, casually acquired information.) Now, with some suggestions from the children and explanations from the teacher, the following outline was put upon the blackboard:

The main rights of neutrality:

1. To live peaceably at home; i. e., not to be forced to take sides in the war or to have life or property endangered by it.
2. To trade with any nation. Exceptions: Entrance to blockaded ports; dealing in contraband goods.
3. To travel peaceably on the high seas or anywhere permitted by existing treaties. Exceptions: Places in which belligerents are actually engaged in warfare.

The questioning was then resumed: Do neutral nations desire to keep up friendly relations with belligerents? What mistake on the part of a neutral nation may interfere with these friendly relations? (Showing more favor to one belligerent than to another.) Why does President Wilson ask us to be neutral (impartial, calm) in our talk and actions toward citizens of belligerent nations? What act on the part of a belligerent nation may interrupt these friendly relations? (The violation of any one of the rights of neutrality.)

The members of the class were referred to the textbook to find out how the United States tried in 1812 to maintain its neutrality and how it failed. The account in the textbook was found all too brief to satisfy the pupils' inquiries, and the study of the war was neither dry nor out of touch with reality.

Miss Clara G. Dilks, of Philadelphia, furnishes the following plan for a series of lessons on "Athens—the City Beautiful." Whatever we may eliminate from Greek history, it should not be Greek art, which has so profoundly influenced the world. But it is not merely that the influence of Greek art survives in modern architecture that gives this phase of Greek history its value; it is the additional fact that the aesthetic interest of children is strong and needs cultivation. We may assume that the following lessons had for a point of departure live interest on the part of the pupils in the beauty of their surroundings, perhaps specifically in a proposed city-planning movement or the erection of a new public building or, on the other hand, in the prevalence in the community of unsightly architecture.

Object of lesson:

1. To visualize Athens.
2. To stimulate the pupils to observe their own surroundings in comparison.
3. To give knowledge of the possibility of combining beauty and utility in building.

Method of assignment:

1. Give an outline that will fit the books available and the time of the pupils:
 - (a) Topography of the Acropolis. Caution: Avoid affording pupils opportunity of making a mere catalogue of names. Let them imagine themselves visitors to the city.
 - (b) Chief orders of Greek architecture.
 - (c) Chief buildings—plan, material, decorations.
2. Assign problems, such as—
 - (a) Examination of a principal street in the pupils' own community for—
 - (1) Kind of buildings.
 - (2) Uniformity in architectural scheme.
 - (3) Attempts to combine beauty with utility.
 - (b) Study of municipal buildings for—
 - (1) Grouping or isolation.
 - (2) Location with reference to business and residence sections.

Plan for teaching:

1. Question class as to characteristics of the Greeks that would influence their art. Compare characteristics of Americans and Greeks and draw conclusions.
2. Discuss orders of Greek architecture, compare them, and cite famous examples. Make use of pictures.
3. Application of orders to buildings.
4. Study of buildings. Use pictures.

Note relative locations.

Adaptation of form of buildings to geographical features.

Decoration.

Deduction as to whether architecture corresponds with the characteristics of the Greeks as noted.
5. Have pupils discover qualities in Greek architecture adaptable to all ages and countries.
6. Experience meeting regarding results of investigations by pupils in their own community and conclusions as to—
 - (a) Presence of Greek influence.
 - (b) Evidence of definite policy for beautifying pupils' own city. Compare with other American cities and European cities.

7. Conclusion of lesson:

Is it possible to adapt the idealistic Greek art to a modern commercial city? Consider modern bridges, street lamps, public buildings.

What is the best means of attaining this end?

Development of general knowledge of good models and an artistic sense.

Use of trained "city planners," art juries, etc.

Miss Blanche E. Hazard, of the department of home economics in the New York State Agricultural College, describes some work done by her when in the High School of Practical Arts, Boston. Her pupils were girls chiefly representing the "working classes." Neither they nor their parents looked with much favor upon an education that was not intensely "practical" from their point of view. Ancient and mediæval history made little appeal to them until—

The study of the mediæval craft guilds and of the development of crafts and commerce was taken up in connection with a close-at-hand examination of the present industries or occupations of their parents or other members of their families. Each father initiated his own daughter into the special mysteries of his craft; if a hod carrier, he sometimes had her await his freedom on Sunday, and then took her over the building where he was at work. The history of the craft, its problems, advantages and disadvantages, technique and conditions, in early times and in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, were studied.

Not only did the girls take the keenest interest in this work, but their fathers also became so interested to know that Greeks and Romans, Germans in the thirteenth century, and Englishmen for the past ten centuries had been tailors, shoemakers, masons, or greengrocers, and to learn of their wares, tools, and methods, that there was a happy interchange of facts of past and present between father and daughter.

Six weeks were allowed for the work in this special industry and an oral report was made to the class. In some years, from 200 girls there would come reports on 75 different industries and occupations. Meanwhile instruction was given regarding general typical industries, such as weaving, printing, lumbering, etc.

The students became keen observers and asked foremen and guides intelligent questions. They came to have decided ideas as to monotonous work and dangerous occupations. They had in hand the history of the industries before and after the introduction of machinery; with and without the protection of legislation. From the mediæval craft guild to the present trade union faith and tenets, became an interesting mental road of travel for them, and linked their far-off history work in their vocational school with their fathers' daily life and interests.

These three-type lessons illustrate the application to particular cases of the principle that history to function properly in the present must meet the needs of present growth in the pupils.

(2) *How shall the course in history be organized for the purposes of secondary education?*

Each new writer of a textbook is guided, consciously or unconsciously, in his choice of topics by earlier manuals which have established what teachers and the public at large are wont to expect under the caption "history."

Until recently the main thread selected was political. Almost everything was classified under kings' reigns, and the policy of their government, and the wars in which they became involved were the favorite subjects of discussion. . . . Political history is the easiest kind of history to write;

it lends itself to accurate chronological arrangement just because it deals mainly with events rather than with conditions. (Prof. Robinson, in *The New History*, chapter on "History for the Common Man," p. 136.)

The substitution of a sociological point of view for that of the mere analyst has led to the introduction of new threads of human progress and the subordination of wars and political policies. It has also led to a partial, but only partial, breaking down of the purely chronological basis of organization. But no substitute for the chronological organization of history has been found that adequately meets the conditions and needs of secondary education.

It is not meant to suggest that chronology can be disregarded. The gradual and orderly evolution, step by step, of institutions and conditions is of the very essence of history. It would be impossible, were it thought desirable, to eliminate this element from historical study. But the principle of organization is antiquated which results in what some one has called the "what-came-next" plan of treatment, a mere succession of events; in the building of United States history on the framework of "administrations," and of English or Roman history on that of "reigns;" and in the organization of the entire history course in such a way that the pupil studies "ancient" history this year, "mediæval" history next year, and "modern" history the year following—provided, indeed, that he happens to begin his history this year and continue it consecutively next year and the year following, which is by no means invariably true.

If, now, we accept the "pedagogical" interpretation of the principle that history must function in the present, namely, that history to be of educational value must relate to the present interests of the pupil, or meet the needs of present growth, in addition to explaining present-day conditions and institutions according to the sociological interpretation, what effect may this have upon the organization of the history course?

A statement by Miss Hannah M. Harris, of the State Normal School, at Hyannis, Mass., bears directly upon this question:

The moment we cut loose from the old method of trying to teach all the historical facts which may happen to be found between the covers of the textbook, the question of how to organize the material of history becomes an urgent one. The student of sociology desires to organize the subject matter primarily to exhibit some important phase or phases of the social evolution of the race or nation or of some smaller group. The student of children and their needs desires to start with their present interests and to select from the story of the past only such fragments as bear so close a relation to these interests that they are capable of being in some real sense understood by the children, and of proving incentives to further profitable interests and activities on their part. This second plan, if logically carried out, would leave the entire record of the past open as a field for selection at any stage of the child's education, and would thus impose upon the teacher a task immensely difficult if not impossible.

These two plans have a common purpose to make the study of history yield the help it should give in the social education of children and young people. Is it not possible to combine successfully certain features of both proposals?

Can we not heed the suggestions of modern pedagogy by starting with those contemporaneous matters in which the children have already some interest, and from this study of present-day community affairs be led naturally back into the past to find related material which is significant to the children because of this relationship, and valuable to them because it serves to make clearer or more interesting the present situation?

At the same time, can we not limit the field of history from which selection of material is to be made for any one year of school work to some one historical epoch, permitting the teacher free choice within these limits, the choice to be guided both by the present interests of the children and by the general rule that any historical facts considered must have some bearing upon the main lines of growth which are characteristic of the period being studied?

Plan of the University of Missouri elementary school.—One of the most radical experiments in the reorganization of history instruction to "meet the needs of present growth" is that of Prof. J. L. Meriam in the university elementary school of the University of Missouri. So far this experiment has been limited to the elementary school, but Dr. Meriam considers it a sufficient success to warrant its adaptation to the secondary school. He believes that "the present four units of history" in the secondary school are "quite out of date."

To quote from Dr. Meriam:

The university elementary school gives no instruction in history as such, although a great deal of historical material is very carefully studied. This policy is in accord with our policy in other subjects. We teach no arithmetic as such, but we do a great deal of arithmetical calculation in connection with special topics. We teach no geography as such, but we become acquainted with a great deal of geographical material in our study of various industrial and social activities. We teach no language as such, but language is in constant use in our efforts to express to the best of our ability the ideas we have in various other subjects.

History as usually taught is looked upon as a method of approach to the study of present-day problems. It is also used as a means of interpreting present-day problems. Thus history is usually studied before present-day problems. Further, history is usually studied by showing events in their chronological order. In the university elementary school no such purpose is present.

For us historical material is studied merely to satisfy interests and to further interests in present-day problems. Such study also provides at times inspiration and suggestion for the further study of problems that are of immediate interest. Such historical material frequently excites interest in reading and thus incidentally furnishes the pupil with certain information that may be of value later. This, however, must be looked upon as a mere by-product.

Thus, with us the study of historical material follows, rather than precedes, the study of similar events in the present, and there is no occasion for taking up these events in chronological order. The immature pupil is not yet prepared to understand and appreciate development of institutions merely because he has not yet had sufficient experience with details. He is, however, interested in isolated events, here and there, especially those which are similar in character to events taking place in the present time that are of interest to him. Thus we need no textbook as a guide, but we use many textbooks as mere reference books. Thus we have no course in history to follow and no given amount of historical study to complete. Within the elementary school field the pupil is not ready to summarize and organize this historical study.

One special illustration may be sufficient. In our sixth grade the subject of transportation is considered in so far as it is a present-day problem. Some eight weeks are spent on such topics as railways, steamship lines, public highways and animal power, use of electricity in travel, the automobile, the aeroplane. In the seventh or eighth grade the same topic is considered, but in certain historical aspects. For example, the growth of railways in the United States and elsewhere. Here would be considered change in the extent of mileage, change in location of roads as affected by needs in various parts of the country, change in the character of engines and cars as influenced by inventions, improvement made in roads, bridges, railway stations, and the like.

Such study calls for: (1) much reading; (2) geographical study concerning the trunk lines and lines of travel; (3) arithmetical calculations, especially in the change of mileage and the cost of construction of roads and trains; (4) some very elementary physics in the study of the steam engine, air brakes, and the like; (5) drawing as a means of illustration; (6) composition, spelling, and writing as a means of expression; (7) "history for the common boy and girl." (See Robinson's "The New History," chapter on "History for the Common Man.")

"*History for the common man.*"—The chapter in Prof. Robinson's book to which Dr. Meriam alludes in the last clause constituted an address before a meeting of school superintendents at which the subject of discussion was industrial education. Prof. Robinson introduced his address as follows:

Should the student of the past be asked what he regarded as the most original and far-reaching discovery of modern times he might reply with some assurance that it is our growing realization of the fundamental importance, and absorbing interest of common men and common things. Our democracy, with all its hopes and aspirations, is based on an appreciation of common men; our science, with all its achievements and prospects, is based on the appreciation of common things. . . . We have come together with a view of adjusting our education to this great discovery.

It is our present business to see what can be done for that very large class of boys and girls who must take up the burden of life prematurely and who must look forward to earning their livelihood by the work of their hands. But education has not been wont, until recently, to reckon seriously with the common man, who must do common things. It has presupposed leisure and freedom from the pressing cares of life. . . .

It is high time that we set to work boldly and without any timid reservation to bring our education into the closest possible relation with the actual life and future duties of the great majority of those who fill our public schools. . . .

History is what we know of the past. We may question it as we question our memory of our own personal acts and experiences. But those things that we recall in our own past vary continually with our moods and preoccupations. We adjust our recollection to our needs and aspirations, and ask from it light on the particular problems that face us. History, too, is not fixed and immutable, but ever changing. Each age has a perfect right to select from the annals of mankind those facts that seem to have a particular bearing on the matters it has at heart. . . .

So, in considering the place to be assigned to history in industrial education, I have no intention . . . of advocating what has hitherto commonly passed for an outline of history. On the contrary, I suggest that we take up the whole problem afresh, freed for the moment from our impressions of "history," vulgarly so called.

What Prof. Robinson suggests is that, given a group of boys and girls whose economic and social position is preordained to the ranks of the great majority of men and women "who do common things," the history instruction should be organized, not on the traditional basis of chronology and politics, but on that of their own immediate interests.

This is what Miss Hazard did in the case cited above (see p. 21). This is also what Dr. Meriam is doing—only he goes further. He maintains that, whether or not we know in advance that the pupils are to be "common men and women," they are at least "common boys and girls" with interests in the present. He would therefore organize all history instruction on the basis of these interests, selecting from any part of the past those facts that "meet the needs of present growth;" and he would utilize these facts at the time when the pupil has need for them in connection with any subject under discussion or any activity in progress.

Practical difficulties of radical reorganization.—It may be plausibly objected that, while such radical reorganization as that suggested by Dr. Meriam may succeed in a special experimental school under the direction of a Dr. Meriam and a well-trained, sympathetic staff, it could not succeed at present under the conditions of the ordinary school. Miss Harris refers to the difficulty (see p. 21, above) and proposes to meet it by a compromise between the "chronological" and "pedagogical" methods, restricting the field from which the teacher shall draw her materials in any given year to a particular historical epoch.

The limitation of the ground to be covered makes it practicable for the average grammar-school teacher, who, of course, is not a specialist in history, to become very familiar with the possibilities of the history of the period in question, as a mine of valuable material. And it is only this familiarity on the teachers' part that will make this sort of teaching a success.

The difficulty to which Miss Harris here refers—unpreparedness in history on the part of the teacher—is perhaps not so much of a factor in the secondary school, especially in cities, as in the elementary school. Unpreparedness of the high-school teacher is likely to be of another kind, namely, unpreparedness in the art of teaching. The college-trained high-school teacher may be a specialist in his subject, but have no training whatever as a teacher.

This unpreparedness of teachers, the lack of suitable textbooks, natural conservatism, and the opposition of those whose chief apparent interest is to maintain the supremacy of a "subject," or who see in the traditional methods of history instruction a means of "culture" that the schools can not dispense with, cause school authorities and teachers to hesitate "to work boldly and without timid reservation," or to "take up the whole matter afresh, freed . . . from the impression of 'history' . . . so called," and to seek rather to modify the existing course of study, incorporating in it as much as possible of the new ideas in the hope that as they prove their worth they

will gain favor and open the way for further improvement. The committee has taken account of this fact in arriving at its conclusions, and has made its recommendations (pp. 15-17) in the hope that they will stimulate initiative and experiment rather than discourage effort at immediate improvement.

(C) PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY—ECONOMIC, SOCIAL, POLITICAL.

It is generally agreed that there should be a culminating course of social study in the last year of the high school, with the purpose of giving a more definite, comprehensive, and deeper knowledge of some of the vital problems of social life, and thus of securing a more intelligent and active citizenship. Like preceding courses, it should provide for the pupils' "needs of present growth," and should be founded upon what has preceded in the pupils' education, especially through the subjects of civics and history.

1. *Conflicting claims for the twelfth year.*—One fact stands out clearly in the present status of the twelfth-year problem, namely, the variety of opinion as to the nature of the work that should be offered in this year. Not to mention the claims of history, the principal claimants for position are political science (government, "advanced civics"), economics, and sociology in some more or less practical form.

A profitable course could be given in any one of these fields, provided only it be adapted to secondary-school purposes. Three alternatives seem to present themselves:

1. To agree upon some one of the three fields.
2. To suggest a type course in each of the three fields, leaving the choice optional with the local school.
3. To recommend a new course involving the principles and materials of all three fields, but adapted directly to the immediate needs of secondary education.

The traditional courses in civil government are almost as inadequate for the last as for the first year of the high school. Efforts to improve them have usually consisted of only slight modifications of the traditional course or of an attempted simplification of political science. The results have not met the needs of high-school pupils nor satisfied the demands of economists and sociologists.

A justifiable opinion prevails that the principles of economics are of such fundamental importance that they should find a more definite place in high-school instruction than is customary. Courses in economics are accordingly appearing in high-school curriculums with increasing frequency. To a somewhat less degree, and with even less unanimity as to nature of content, the claims of sociology are being pressed. A practical difficulty is presented by the resulting complexity of the course of study. The advocates of none of the social sciences are willing to yield wholly to the others, nor is it justifiable from the standpoint of the pupil's social education to limit his instruction to one field of social science to the exclusion of others. The most serious difficulty, however, is that none of the social sciences, as developed and organized by the

specialists, is adapted to the requirements of secondary education, and all attempts to adapt them to such requirements have been obstructed by tradition, as in the case of history.

Is it not time, in this field as in history, "to take up the whole problem afresh, freed . . . from the impressions of" the traditional social sciences?

2. Relation to preceding courses.—The suggestion that follows with reference to the last-year course of social study must be considered in the light of the recommendations for the preceding years. The courses in community civics and in history, if developed along the lines suggested in this report, are rich in their economic, sociological, and political connotations. Even if no provision be made in the last year for the further development of the special social sciences, the committee believes that its recommendations for the preceding years still provide as never before for the education of the pupil regarding the economic and social relations of his life.

3. Concrete problems in varied aspects.—The only feasible way the committee can see by which to satisfy in reasonable measure the demands of the several social sciences, while maintaining due regard for the requirements of secondary education, is to organize instruction, not on the basis of the formal social sciences, but on the basis of concrete problems of vital importance to society and of immediate interest to the pupil.

In other words, the suggestion is not to discard one social science in favor of another, nor attempt to crowd the several social sciences into this year in abridged forms; but to study actual problems, or issues, or conditions, as they occur in life, and in their several aspects, political, economic, and sociological. These problems or issues will naturally vary from year to year, and from class to class, but they should be selected on the ground (1) of their immediate interest to the class and (2) of their vital importance to society. The principle suggested here is the same as that applied to the organization of civics and history.

4. Illustrations.—In actual life, whether as high-school pupils or as adults, we face problems or conditions and not sciences. We use sciences, however, to interpret our problems and conditions. Furthermore, every problem or condition has many sides and may involve the use of various sciences. To illustrate the point we may take the cost of living, which is a vital problem from the standpoint of the individual and of society, and may readily have been forced upon the interest of the pupil through changes in mode of life, curtailment of allowance, sacrifice of customary pleasures, change in plans for education, etc. This problem involves, on the economic side, such fundamental matters as values, prices, wages, etc.; on the sociological side, such matters as standards of living, birth rate, etc.; on the political side, such matters as tariff legislation, control of trusts and the like, and the appropriate machinery of legislation, law enforcement, and judicial procedure.

The problem of immigration might impose itself

upon attention for any one of a number of reasons. It will have been touched upon in an elementary way in community civics, and doubtless will have come up in a variety of ways in connection with history; but it may now be considered more comprehensively, more intensively, and more exhaustively. One of the chief aims should now be to organize knowledge with reference to the economic, sociological, and political principles involved.

Economic relations of immigration:

Labor supply and other industrial problems (on the side of "production").

Standards of living, not only of the immigrants, but also of native Americans as affected by immigration (on the side of "consumption").

Relation to the problem of land tenure in the United States.

Sociological relations of immigration:

Movements and distribution of population; congestion in cities; etc.

Assimilation of immigrant population; admixture of races.

Vital statistics, health problems, etc.

Educational and religious problems involved.

Social contributions of immigrants; art, science, ethics.

Political and governmental relations of immigration:

Political contributions of immigrants; art, science, ethics, inherited political conceptions with those of the country of their adoption.

Naturalization; its methods, abuses, etc.

The courts in the light of the processes of naturalization.

Administration of immigration laws.

Defects and inconsistencies in the methods of our Government as shown in legislation regarding immigrants and in the administration of the laws.

Problems of municipal government arising from or complicated by immigration.

A study or series of studies of the type here suggested, developing from concrete issues, would afford opportunity to go as far as occasion demands and time allows into the fundamental economic and political questions of the time. In the field of political science, for example, problems can readily be formulated on the basis of particular cases involving a study of legislative methods of Congress and of State legislatures; the powers and limitations of Federal and State executives; judicial machinery and procedure; lack of uniformity in State legislation and its results; weakness of county government; comparison of administration of cities in Europe, South America, and the United States, etc.

There has not yet been the same insistent demand for sociology as a science in the high school that there has been for economics and the science of government. But there are many questions and principles of a more or less purely sociological character that are just as important for the consideration of a high-school boy or girl as many others of a more or less purely economic or political character. A course of the kind suggested by the committee should doubtless afford opportunity for some consideration of such vital social institutions as the family and the church.

These institutions will, it is hoped, have been studied in some of their aspects and relations in connection with history courses and in community civics, but they may now be considered from different angles, the point of departure being some particular problem in the foreground of current attention, such as, for example, the strength and weakness of the church as a socializing factor in rural life, etc.

Again, there are certain facts relating to the "social mind" for which the high-school boy and girl are quite ready, provided the study has a sufficiently concrete foundation and a sufficiently direct application. Any daily paper, indeed the life of any large school, will afford numerous incidents upon which to base a serious consideration, for example, of the impulsive action of "crowds" in contrast with the deliberative action of individuals and of the consequences of such action in social conduct. The power and effects of tradition are another phenomenon of social psychology fully as worthy of study in the high-school as many of the other social facts and laws that seem indispensable; it is not necessary to go farther than the curriculum which the pupil is following and the methods by which he is instructed to find a starting point for a discussion of this question and abundant material for its exemplification.

These two particular illustrations of expressions of the "social mind" are taken from a description of the social studies in the curriculum of Hampton Institute.⁴ It may be said in passing that this committee has found no better illustration of the organization of economic and sociological knowledge on a problem basis, and of the selection of problems for study with direct reference to the pupils' immediate interests and needs than that offered in the work of this institution.

5. *Summary of reasons for the proposed course.*—In making its suggestion for this study of concrete problems of democracy in the last year of the high school the committee has been particularly influenced by the following considerations:

(1) It is impracticable to include in the high-school program a comprehensive course in each of the social sciences. And yet it is unjust to the pupil that his knowledge of social facts and laws should be limited to the field of any one of them, however important that one may be.

(2) The purposes of secondary education and not the intrinsic value of any particular body of knowledge should be the determining consideration. From the standpoint of the purposes of secondary education, it is far less important that the adolescent youth should acquire a comprehensive knowledge of any or all of the social sciences than it is that he should be given experience and practice in the observation of social phenomena as he encounters them; that he should be brought to understand that every social problem is many-sided and complex; and that he should acquire the habit of forming social judgments

only on the basis of dispassionate consideration of all the facts available. This, the committee believes, can best be accomplished by dealing with actual situations as they occur and by drafting into service the materials of all the social sciences as occasion demands for a thorough understanding of the situations in question.

(3) The principles upon which such a course is based are the same as those which have been successfully applied in community civics and, to some extent in isolated cases, to the teaching of economics, sociology, and even history.

6. *Experiment urged.*—The committee believes, however, that it should at this time go no further than to define principles, with such meager illustration as it has available, and to urge experiment. It would especially urge that the methods and results of experiment, either along the lines suggested in this report or in other directions, be recorded by those who make them and reported for the benefit of all who are interested.

A pageant of Missouri was given by students of the Kirksville State Normal School on May 20, 1916. The book of the pageant was prepared during the fall term by a class in history under the direction of Professor Violette, which gathered historical material for the book, and another class in English under Professor Wise, which composed the various episodes, preludes, interludes, postludes, upon the basis of the historical material furnished by the history class. The drilling of the cast, the rendering of the music, and the orchestration of the music were all done under the direction of members of the faculty of the Normal School.

The New York State Historical Association met at Cooperstown, October 3 and 4. Dr. Sherman Williams, the president of the association, delivered a very interesting address upon "The Present Position and Importance of the Teaching of State History." He pointed out that in the Regents' examinations in American history fewer questions were asked about the history of New York than were asked upon the history of Ireland in the English history examinations. He said that pupils learn more of the history of Massachusetts, of Pennsylvania and of Virginia than they do of the history of New York. He urged the preparation of a syllabus of state history outlining the history and provisions for examinations in the subject. He would have a list of books for reading prepared. In closing, Doctor Williams said, "We want our boys and girls so trained from the time they enter school to the day of their graduation, that they may think and act intelligently in regard to matters connected with our history. We should neglect no opportunity to see that the pupils in our schools are always taught our history thoroughly, beginning with the history of the locality in which they live, and from such small beginnings may grow ever-widening and deepening interest in the world's history."

⁴ Jones, Thomas Jesse. "Social Studies in the Hampton Curriculum." Hampton Institute Press, 1908.

specialists, is adapted to the requirements of secondary education, and all attempts to adapt them to such requirements have been obstructed by tradition, as in the case of history.

Is it not time, in this field as in history, "to take up the whole problem afresh, freed . . . from the impressions of" the traditional social sciences?

2. *Relation to preceding courses.*—The suggestion that follows with reference to the last-year course of social study must be considered in the light of the recommendations for the preceding years. The courses in community civics and in history, if developed along the lines suggested in this report, are rich in their economic, sociological, and political connotations. Even if no provision be made in the last year for the further development of the special social sciences, the committee believes that its recommendations for the preceding years still provide as never before for the education of the pupil regarding the economic and social relations of his life.

3. *Concrete problems in varied aspects.*—The only feasible way the committee can see by which to satisfy in reasonable measure the demands of the several social sciences, while maintaining due regard for the requirements of secondary education, is to organize instruction, not on the basis of the formal social sciences, but on the basis of concrete problems of vital importance to society and of immediate interest to the pupil.

In other words, the suggestion is not to discard one social science in favor of another, nor attempt to crowd the several social sciences into this year in abridged forms; but to study actual problems, or issues, or conditions, as they occur in life, and in their several aspects, political, economic, and sociological. These problems or issues will naturally vary from year to year, and from class to class, but they should be selected on the ground (1) of their immediate interest to the class and (2) of their vital importance to society. The principle suggested here is the same as that applied to the organization of civics and history.

4. *Illustrations.*—In actual life, whether as high-school pupils or as adults, we face problems or conditions and not sciences. We use sciences, however, to interpret our problems and conditions. Furthermore, every problem or condition has many sides and may involve the use of various sciences. To illustrate the point we may take the cost of living, which is a vital problem from the standpoint of the individual and of society, and may readily have been forced upon the interest of the pupil through changes in mode of life, curtailment of allowance, sacrifice of customary pleasures, change in plans for education, etc. This problem involves, on the economic side, such fundamental matters as values, prices, wages, etc.; on the sociological side, such matters as standards of living, birth rate, etc.; on the political side, such matters as tariff legislation, control of trusts and the like, and the appropriate machinery of legislation, law enforcement, and judicial procedure.

The problem of immigration might impose itself

upon attention for any one of a number of reasons. It will have been touched upon in an elementary way in community civics, and doubtless will have come up in a variety of ways in connection with history; but it may now be considered more comprehensively, more intensively, and more exhaustively. One of the chief aims should now be to organize knowledge with reference to the economic, sociological, and political principles involved.

Economic relations of immigration:

Labor supply and other industrial problems (on the side of "production").

Standards of living, not only of the immigrants, but also of native Americans as affected by immigration (on the side of "consumption").

Relation to the problem of land tenure in the United States.

Sociological relations of immigration:

Movements and distribution of population; congestion in cities; etc.

Assimilation of immigrant population; admixture of races.

Vital statistics, health problems, etc.

Educational and religious problems involved.

Social contributions of immigrants; art, science, ethics.

Political and governmental relations of immigration:

Political contributions of immigrants; art, science, ethics. Herited political conceptions with those of the country of their adoption.

Naturalization; its methods, abuses, etc.

The courts in the light of the processes of naturalization.

Administration of immigration laws.

Defects and inconsistencies in the methods of our Government as shown in legislation regarding immigrants and in the administration of the laws.

Problems of municipal government arising from or complicated by immigration.

A study or series of studies of the type here suggested, developing from concrete issues, would afford opportunity to go as far as occasion demands and time allows into the fundamental economic and political questions of the time. In the field of political science, for example, problems can readily be formulated on the basis of particular cases involving a study of legislative methods of Congress and of State legislatures; the powers and limitations of Federal and State executives; judicial machinery and procedure; lack of uniformity in State legislation and its results; weakness of county government; comparison of administration of cities in Europe, South America, and the United States, etc.

There has not yet been the same insistent demand for sociology as a science in the high school that there has been for economics and the science of government. But there are many questions and principles of a more or less purely sociological character that are just as important for the consideration of a high-school boy or girl as many others of a more or less purely economic or political character. A course of the kind suggested by the committee should doubtless afford opportunity for some consideration of such vital social institutions as the family and the church.

These institutions will, it is hoped, have been studied in some of their aspects and relations in connection with history courses and in community civics, but they may now be considered from different angles, the point of departure being some particular problem in the foreground of current attention, such as, for example, the strength and weakness of the church as a socializing factor in rural life, etc.

Again, there are certain facts relating to the "social mind" for which the high-school boy and girl are quite ready, provided the study has a sufficiently concrete foundation and a sufficiently direct application. Any daily paper, indeed the life of any large school, will afford numerous incidents upon which to base a serious consideration, for example, of the impulsive action of "crowds" in contrast with the deliberative action of individuals and of the consequences of such action in social conduct. The power and effects of tradition are another phenomenon of social psychology fully as worthy of study in the high-school as many of the other social facts and laws that seem indispensable; it is not necessary to go farther than the curriculum which the pupil is following and the methods by which he is instructed to find a starting point for a discussion of this question and abundant material for its exemplification.

These two particular illustrations of expressions of the "social mind" are taken from a description of the social studies in the curriculum of Hampton Institute.⁴ It may be said in passing that this committee has found no better illustration of the organization of economic and sociological knowledge on a problem basis, and of the selection of problems for study with direct reference to the pupils' immediate interests and needs than that offered in the work of this institution.

5. *Summary of reasons for the proposed course.*—In making its suggestion for this study of concrete problems of democracy in the last year of the high school the committee has been particularly influenced by the following considerations:

(1) It is impracticable to include in the high-school program a comprehensive course in each of the social sciences. And yet it is unjust to the pupil that his knowledge of social facts and laws should be limited to the field of any one of them, however important that one may be.

(2) The purposes of secondary education and not the intrinsic value of any particular body of knowledge should be the determining consideration. From the standpoint of the purposes of secondary education, it is far less important that the adolescent youth should acquire a comprehensive knowledge of any or all of the social sciences than it is that he should be given experience and practice in the observation of social phenomena as he encounters them; that he should be brought to understand that every social problem is many-sided and complex; and that he should acquire the habit of forming social judgments

only on the basis of dispassionate consideration of all the facts available. This, the committee believes, can best be accomplished by dealing with actual situations as they occur and by drafting into service the materials of all the social sciences as occasion demands for a thorough understanding of the situations in question.

(3) The principles upon which such a course is based are the same as those which have been successfully applied in community civics and, to some extent in isolated cases, to the teaching of economics, sociology, and even history.

6. *Experiment urged.*—The committee believes, however, that it should at this time go no further than to define principles, with such meager illustration as it has available, and to urge experiment. It would especially urge that the methods and results of experiment, either along the lines suggested in this report or in other directions, be recorded by those who make them and reported for the benefit of all who are interested.

A pageant of Missouri was given by students of the Kirksville State Normal School on May 20, 1916. The book of the pageant was prepared during the fall term by a class in history under the direction of Professor Violette, which gathered historical material for the book, and another class in English under Professor Wise, which composed the various episodes, preludes, interludes, postludes, upon the basis of the historical material furnished by the history class. The drilling of the cast, the rendering of the music, and the orchestration of the music were all done under the direction of members of the faculty of the Normal School.

The New York State Historical Association met at Cooperstown, October 3 and 4. Dr. Sherman Williams, the president of the association, delivered a very interesting address upon "The Present Position and Importance of the Teaching of State History." He pointed out that in the Regents' examinations in American history fewer questions were asked about the history of New York than were asked upon the history of Ireland in the English history examinations. He said that pupils learn more of the history of Massachusetts, of Pennsylvania and of Virginia than they do of the history of New York. He urged the preparation of a syllabus of state history outlining the history and provisions for examinations in the subject. He would have a list of books for reading prepared. In closing, Doctor Williams said, "We want our boys and girls so trained from the time they enter school to the day of their graduation, that they may think and act intelligently in regard to matters connected with our history. We should neglect no opportunity to see that the pupils in our schools are always taught our history thoroughly, beginning with the history of the locality in which they live, and from such small beginnings may grow ever-widening and deepening interest in the world's history."

⁴Jones, Thomas Jesse. "Social Studies in the Hampton Curriculum." Hampton Institute Press, 1908.

Historical Geography in College Classes

The importance of appreciating the relation of history to geography is recognized by all instructors of history. In colleges, however, when the instructor discovers how lamentably ignorant his students are upon this aspect of history, he generally uses strong language against the high school teachers of history, and then proceeds to teach historical geography in the way he thinks it should have been taught in the high school. A far more rational way of approach is to ignore what has gone before, and handle historical geography in a manner adapted to the intellectual maturity of the college student.

This is now being done successfully in the course in Introductory European History in Columbia University. This course has passed through many changes since it was described in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* six years ago (Vol. I, p. 220). The ancient and medieval portions have been omitted and it now begins with a survey of European society at the opening of the sixteenth century. The emphasis upon historical geography mentioned by Prof. J. T. Shotwell in his description in 1910, has, however, been greatly strengthened.

Prof. C. J. H. Hayes and Messrs. P. T. Moon and A. P. Evans have expressed their views on the place of map work in their "Syllabus of Modern History with Map Studies" (3rd edition, N. Y., 1916). "These studies should, therefore, aid the student in fixing in his mind a picture of the homes of the people with whom he expects to become familiar; from them he should come to recognize river and lake, mountain and valley, as well as political boundaries of states, the growth of nations, and their inter-relations. It is only when he has such a picture clearly fixed in his mind that the story of the people of these lands can be intelligently followed.

"Frequently the student looks upon the map study as sheer drudgery, wasting time which might be better employed. And if the map study is to degenerate, as it too frequently does, into the mere mechanical exercise of copying meaningless lines and colors from an atlas, such a viewpoint is in large measure justified. But that lies with the student himself. The attempt has here been made so to co-ordinate the map work with the assigned reading that its value may readily become apparent if the studies are done in connection with the reading, and are followed chronologically and understandingly. The student should see countries or movements grow. Any tendency merely to copy a map from an atlas is to be avoided. Every student will be held responsible for a thorough knowledge of the important facts and ideas of all map studies assigned and on final examination may be required to reproduce any map in its larger features" (p. 49).

With the permission of the authors of this syllabus several of their map studies are printed below.

EDITOR.

MAP STUDY NUMBER FIVE.¹

THE ECCLESIASTICAL SITUATION IN EUROPE, 1500-1648.

Text: Hayes I, 112-169, ch. iv.; Hulme, Renaissance, Protestant Revolution, and Catholic Reformation.

Atlas: Shepherd, 116, 118; Muir, p. 10; Hayes I, 165 map; Hulme, 260 map. McKinley Outline Map No. 101a.

The present study is designed to show (A) the essential religious unity of western Europe in the year 1500; (B) the rending of that unity by the religious upheaval of the sixteenth century, and the deep inroads made by Protestantism during the first half of the century; and finally (C) the regaining of large sections of territory by a revitalized Catholicism. It must be continually borne in mind that the limits of religious faiths, unlike political boundaries, tend to shade into one another. They are intangible and ever shifting, but a study such as the present, even though necessarily only partial and inaccurate, should help the student to visualize clearly the essential facts in the ecclesiastical situation of the sixteenth century. For it is quite as important that one have these religious boundaries well in mind, as that one know the political divisions of Europe.

A. Divesting yourself in so far as possible of present-day preconceptions, read carefully Hayes I, 112-113, 122-123, and then draw lines showing the approximate boundaries in Europe of Roman Catholicism, Greek Catholicism (Orthodoxy), and Mohammedanism in the year 1500. (Hayes I, 165 map, or Shepherd, 116.) Were there any appreciable bodies of heretics to be found in Europe at this time? If so, indicate by light cross-hatching in brown.

It must be remembered that large territories in Europe were controlled directly by the Church and administered by the clergy. This fact gave the clergy great political as well as religious importance, and led during and after the Protestant Revolt to serious complications. Such lands were the *Papal States* in Italy and the lands in the Empire controlled by the great prince-bishops. Refer now to Map Study Number One, and also to Hulme, 260 map, and see that you remember the Church lands there mentioned. Compare these maps with Shepherd, 116, and note in your key which of these lands were swept over into Protestantism. It should be remembered that these were not the only lands lost by the Church, but that countless smaller holdings were confiscated, not only in the states which outright became Protestant, but even in some of the countries which remained Catholic (Hayes I, 126).

B. The Protestant Revolt split Europe into two camps, between which the dividing line tended ever to become more sharply defined. In general, what parts of Europe broke away from the headship of the Pope? Draw a line showing the approximate extent of the Revolt in the year 1550. (Shepherd, 116.) On your key-sheet name the states and the more important divisions of the Empire that had become Protestant by this time, indicating whether Lutheran, Anglican, Calvinistic, or Zwinglian. These countries should

¹ The text used is C. J. H. Hayes' "A Political and Social History of Modern Europe;" the atlases are W. R. Shepherd, "Historical Atlas," R. Muir, "Hammond's New Historical Atlas for Students" (second edition), and C. G. Robertson and J. G. Bartholomew, "An Historical Atlas of Modern Europe from 1789 to 1914."

now be colored, using pink for Lutheran, red for Anglican, yellow for Calvinistic (and Zwinglian). If traces of Catholicism remain, indicate the fact by oblique lines in blue. In the Germanies, where much of the land was still debatable, indicate by solid color (pink) those lands which had gone over to Protestantism and outline in pink those lands, such as Bavaria and Austria, in which the new movement had won a considerable popular following. Would you say that at this time the Germanies gave indication of going over entirely to Lutheranism? (Read Hulme, 264-265.)

In France, Protestantism never won any solid districts. In the south and west, however, Calvinism gained numerous adherents. Indicate these by oblique lines in yellow (Shepherd, 116). The three most important towns which were confirmed to the Protestants (Huguenots) by the Edict of Nantes (1598) were La Rochelle, Nîmes, and Montauban. Locate these towns.

We should now be in a position to recognize the rapidity of the spread of the Protestant movement. Within a generation nearly the whole of northern Europe had broken with the Roman Catholic Church, and Protestantism had made serious inroads upon central and southern Europe. Can you give any reason for the fact that the new faith gained its staunchest adherents in the north? Consider this question, but do not attempt to answer it in your key.

C. That the Revolt spread no further was due in large part to the Catholic Reformation which is the central fact in the religious life of Europe during the latter half of the sixteenth and the early part of the seventeenth century. It must be remembered that this was not merely a defensive movement, but an aggressive attempt to win back the lands which had been lost to the Catholic Church. The short-lived restoration of Roman Catholicism in England during the reign of Mary Tudor illustrates the aggressive character of the movement. Unsuccessful in England, the Catholic Church was none the less victorious in lands of central and southern Europe. Recall the terms of the Religious Peace of Augsburg (1555). That princes were thereby given free reign in deciding the religion (Lutheranism or Catholicism) of their subjects—a contention which the Protestant princes had long upheld—would now aid Catholic princes as well. It would also tend to make the fluctuating line of division between Catholicism and Protestantism more clear-cut. Notice the important gains made by Catholicism in the southern Germanies. Compare the maps in Shepherd, 116 and 118. Where and against what Protestant sect did Catholicism make its most notable gains? (See Muir, page 10.) Fill in now with solid blue the lands, such as Italy and Spain, which had preserved their allegiance to the Catholic Church, and the lands which were won back to the Church during this period (1555-1600), enumerating the latter in your key.

Did any Protestant sect make gains, also, during this period? (Shepherd, 118.) Indicate such gains on your key-sheet and on the map where possible. This should make clear why the recognition of Calvinism became such a burning question during the later sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries.

Compare, finally, the extent of lands held by Protestantism in 1550 and about the year 1600, making mental note of any important changes. The line between Catholic and Protestant countries, as it appeared about the year 1600, and as it was more definitely established at the end of the Thirty Years' War (1648), has to the present day remained substantially the same.

MAP STUDY NUMBER SIX.

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR AND THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA.

Text: Hayes I, 218-232; Wakeman, *European History*, 1598-1715.

Atlas: Shepherd, 114-115, 118-119, 121-123; Muir, pp. 11-12 and plate 9; Hayes I, 229 map; Map for Map Study Number Five.

McKinley Outline Map No. 125a.

A study of the territorial changes which took place at the close of the Thirty Years' War is illuminating from several points of view. It makes evident one at least of the leading motives for the intervention of neighboring powers in German affairs; it marks the beginning of aggressions on the part of two of these powers, France and Sweden, at the expense of German states; it points also to the rise of the House of Hohenzollern to a position of power in the Germanies, and portrays most impressively the hopeless confusion, weakness, and disunion of the numberless states, small and large, comprising the Holy Roman Empire. (See Muir, pp. 11-12.)

A. After reading Hayes I, 219-229, draw a line on the ecclesiastical map you prepared for Map Study Number Five, separating those countries of Europe and divisions of the Empire which adhered to the Catholic and Imperial party from those which fought for the "Protestant" cause. Name on your key-sheet and indicate (on McKinley Outline Map No. 125a) by bi-colored cross-hatching at least one of the states within the Empire which pursued a double policy, aiding first one side and then the other. (Consult Shepherd, 118-119, 122-123; Muir, plate 9; Hayes I, 229.) Comparing the line of the Thirty Years' War with the line of ecclesiastical division (Map Study Number Five), would you infer that religious conviction formed the only or even necessarily the chief motive in this war? Does the political condition of the Germanies invite foreign intervention? Outline the Holy Roman Empire before the war (Shepherd, 114-115.) Note the patch-work effect of the myriad states shown by the map just referred to. And no map can possibly convey an exaggerated or even an adequate idea of the complexity and disunion of the Holy Roman Empire.

B. (1) Foreign aggrandizement. One motive which actuated the belligerents in the Thirty Years' War will be patent upon a survey of the territorial gains confirmed to foreign powers by the Peace of Westphalia. Indicate by oblique lines the territory which the king of Denmark hoped to gain for a younger son (Wakeman, 68; Hayes I, 223). Show next in solid color the territories actually secured by France either as new acquisitions or as confirmations of earlier conquests. (See, especially, Shepherd, 121 inset.) Map Study Number Seven will show how these gains were the fruit of a consistent policy of the French government, namely, to round out French territory to its "natural frontiers."

Show by horizontal shading what territorial gains were made by Sweden. Note that she was now placed in control of the mouths of three of the most important German rivers—the Weser, the Elbe, and the Oder. The significance of this becomes manifest when one recalls that railways were then unknown, and the rough highways were too frequently rendered either impassable by rains or unsafe by "gentlemen of the road." The rivers, therefore, served as the great arteries of trade and communication, and the Power controlling them secured an immense advantage. The Germanies were now largely at the mercy of Sweden in respect of their foreign communications and commerce. Sweden, like France, was pursuing a consistent policy—the policy of making the Baltic a Swedish lake.

B. (2) Internal changes. No less self-seeking than the foreign Powers were the several states of the Empire. Each sought its own advantage from the weakness and disruption of the central government. Indicate the gains made by Bavaria as reimbursement for service rendered by Duke Maximilian to the Emperor. At whose expense were these gains made? What did Saxony win from the war and at whose expense? (Key.) The state which gained most, however, was Brandenburg, thanks to the efforts of its able, wily, and unscrupulous ruler, Frederick William, the Great Elector. He claimed the whole of Pomerania, but received compensation for the portion taken by Sweden in the rich lands of Magdeburg, Halberstadt, and Minden. Having indicated in solid colors all lands secured by Brandenburg, Saxony, and Bavaria, outline each of these states in the same color as its new acquisitions, in order to make sure that you have clearly in mind the relative position of each ceded territory with reference to the state by which it was acquired. (Shepherd, 121 inset, shows the territorial changes most clearly; the terms of the treaty are well summarized by Wakeman, *European History*, 1598-1715, pp. 123-124.)

C. Significance of the treaty. More significant than the actual territorial changes was the reaction of the Peace of Westphalia upon the Empire and upon Europe as a whole. It "is the beginning of a new era. It marks the formation of the modern European states system. In Germany itself, the central fact registered by the peace is the final disintegration of the Empire. The German people were governed by the German princes, who had all the rights of sovereignty . . . the central authority was reduced to a minimum." Foreign states (enumerate them in your key) now had votes in the Diet by virtue of their newly-acquired German possessions. Large territories now broke away from the Empire and were declared independent (indicate them on your map and in your key). The Emperor became less German in his policy and more Austrian. (The student would do well to read the summary in Wakeman, pp. 122-128.)

MAP STUDY NUMBER EIGHT.

THE COLONIAL CONFLICTS OF FRANCE AND ENGLAND, 1688-1763.

Text: Hayes I, 299-319.

Atlas: Hayes I, 301, 317; Shepherd, 128, 132, 133, 136-137, 189-194; Muir, pp. 52-53; plates 48-50, 53-55.

McKinley Outline Map No. 104a, No. 148a, and Map Study Number Three.

While in the European wars from 1688 to 1763, the French Bourbons were dearly purchasing a few square miles of territory to round out the frontiers and establish the military prestige of France in Europe, they underestimated the importance of sea-power, colonies, and commerce. It is the purpose of this Map Study to exhibit and explain the downfall of France as a colonial power and the triumph of Great Britain in the century-long conflict for world-dominion.

A. In order to make clear the position of the rivals on the eve of the "world-conflict," refer back to Map Study Number Three, and on that map of the colonial explorations (or in the key) show the chief colonial possessions gained or lost by England, France, Spain, Portugal, and the Netherlands between 1600 and 1688 (comparing Shepherd, 107-110 and 128; see Hayes I, 58-59, 299-304). Which of these five Powers, in your estimation, controlled the greatest colonial area; the most valuable mining regions; the most important spice-producing areas? For what products were the French and English colonies (a) on the North American continent, and (b) in the West Indies, chiefly prized? What was to be the position of Spain (Hayes I, 307, 308, 311,

315) and of the Netherlands (Hayes I, 307-308) in the forthcoming struggle between France and England?

B. The Colonial Wars in America. On Map No. 104a, fill in with solid color the areas effectively settled by the English and by the French before 1688 (Hayes I, 300-302 and map p. 301; Shepherd, 128, 189-193; Muir, plates, 48, 53, 54). Indicate in lighter tints of the same colors or by cross-hatching the extent of the English and French settlements about 1750. What were the geographic and economic reasons for the wide diffusion of French settlement and for the compactness of English colonization? What prevented the English from spreading westward around the southern end of the Appalachian barrier? Outline the extreme territorial claims—regardless of effective occupation or justification—of the French and of the English about the year 1688 (Shepherd, 190-191; Hayes I, 300). Following the narrative in Hayes I, 306-312, for each of the colonial wars in America between 1689 and 1750, indicate the principal places conquered by the belligerents and the territories ceded by treaty. In preparation for the great French and Indian War, indicate the following French forts and posts, taking mental note of the date and the strategic importance of each: Louisburg, Frédéric, Oswego, Niagara, Presqu' Isle, Le Boeuf, Venango, Duquesne, Detroit, Sault Ste. Marie, New Orleans (Shepherd, 191; Hayes I, 309). Place circles around the French strongholds captured by the British, 1758-1760 (Hayes I, 314.) On your key-sheet note the territorial changes in America registered by the peace of 1763, and the American possessions retained by France (Hayes I, 317-319). Referring to Shepherd, 176, note in your key the regions of the New World where French is still the language of the people.

C. Anglo-French Rivalry in India. To gain some idea of the size of India, compare the distance between Calcutta and Bombay with that between London and Liverpool; between Paris and Vienna; between New York and San Francisco. Remembering that the densely populated empire of India was valuable not for colonization but for trade and possibly for tribute, indicate on McKinley Outline Map No. 148a the English and French trading posts established in the seventeenth century, with dates (Hayes I, 303-304; Shepherd, 128, 132, 137). Observe especially the localities where French and English ambitions might clash. In the eighteenth century, when the power of the Mogul Emperor at Delhi had fallen into decay, and his vassals and viceroys, such as the nizam of the Deccan (capital at Hyderabad) and the nawab of Bengal (capital at Murshidabad) had become virtually independent princes, the masterful French governor-general Dupleix entered into the political intrigues of the native Indian rulers, hoping thereby to increase French power and prestige. "When Dupleix was appointed governor of Pondicherry, the French were already practically masters of the south Coromandel Coast, and their influence extended far into the Carnatic. He quickly put the older settlement in order, and returned to Chandernagore, to be installed there as nawab of that place. Returning to Pondicherry, he used his new title as a means of overawing the neighboring chieftains; his magnificence dazzled them, and he was soon recognized as sovereign of the South." (Tilby, *British India*, p. 51.) Puppets of Dupleix were established as nizam at Hyderabad and nawab at Arcot. In addition, the Northern Circars were brought directly under French control. Shade with oblique lines the territory held by the French, and outline the wider regions in which French influence predominated, in the time of Dupleix (Shepherd, 137). To Robert Clive, whom the natives called Sabut Jung

("Daring in War") must be ascribed the credit of wrecking the grandiose schemes of Dupleix. Follow Clive's exploits on the map; his bold seizure and gallant defense of Arcot (1751), which established British prestige in the Carnatic; his recapture of Calcutta (1757); his conquest of Chandernagore (1757); his amazing victory at Plassey (1757), which enabled him to set up a British protégé as nawab of Bengal. Follow also the subsequent British victories at Masulipatam (1758), Wandewash (1760), and Pondicherry (1761). Although by the treaty of Paris (1763), France retained five unfortified posts in India as relics to remind her of Dupleix's dream of empire, the political power of France in India was destroyed; Dupleix had returned home disconsolate in 1754; and the French East India Company was shortly afterwards dissolved (1769). The British, however, still had the native princes to deal with. Shade by oblique lines the territories directly under British control at the close of Clive's administration (Shepherd, 137). One of Clive's last acts was to acquire from the Mogul the right to collect the revenues and maintain the armies of Bengal, Behar, Orissa, and the Northern Circars; hence, these provinces should be outlined as belonging to the British sphere of influence.

MAP STUDY NUMBER TWELVE.

THE GROWTH OF RUSSIA, 1500-1795.

Text: Hayes I, 366-388; Rambaud, *The Expansion of Russia*.

Atlas: Shepherd, 2-3, 120, 124, 130, 138-139, 170-171; Muir, plates 1, 26, 27, 59, 60, 63; Hayes I, 369 map; Hayes II, 467 map.

McKinley Outline Maps Nos. 101a and 102b.

The story of Russia, like that of her western neighbor, Prussia, has been one of continual expansion. There are two phases of this expansion: (A) the gradual extension of her frontiers eastward over the great plains of Northern Asia, much such a movement as the westward expansion in our own country; and (B) the pushing of her boundaries south and west at the expense of civilized states, each of which, during some period of our study, played a considerable role in the history of Europe.

A. Eastward Expansion. First notice briefly the acquisition of northern Asia. Glance again at a physical map (Shepherd, 2-3, 170-171; Muir, plates 1, 59, 60) and observe how lack of natural barriers would invite expansion eastward. Read Hayes I, 367, and, referring to your atlas (Shepherd, 170-171; Muir, plate 63; Hayes II, 467), follow the line of eastward expansion, locating (on McKinley Map No. 102b) with dates of foundation the cities mentioned in the text. Draw as accurately as you can the boundaries of Russia in Asia as they were in the year 1795 and color lightly the lands east of the Urals which then formed a part of the Russian Empire. This will serve to show that Russia is naturally as much an Asiatic as a European power.

B. European Expansion. In the west, Russia had to settle with Sweden the question of the control of the Eastern Baltic; with the Turks, the question of the control of the Black Sea; and with Poland, the question of the hegemony of Slavic Europe. We have already seen these three states in clash with Austria and Prussia (Map Studies Ten and Eleven); their most implacable foe was, however, this great Oriental Slavic Empire, founded by the prince of Moscow and forced into the councils of Western Europe by Peter the Great. (If you study the two maps in Muir, plate 26, reading also the explanation of those maps on pp. 30-32 of Muir, the above statement will appear more striking.)

Read now your text (Hayes I, 368-369) and then indicate on your map (No. 101a) the successive acquisitions made by Russia in Europe from the time of Ivan III to the ac-

cession of Peter the Great. (From Map Study Number One you can get the extent of Russian territory at the death of Ivan III.) Most important acquisitions were made by Ivan IV in the valleys of the Volga and the Don, and by Alexis against the Poles on the Dnieper. Consult for this purpose Shepherd, 138-139; Muir, plate 27. The former is difficult to read; the latter has but little detail. Rambaud's *Expansion of Russia*, pp. 16-18, may help to explain these maps for the interested student.

It remained for Peter the Great (1689-1725) to push purposefully the expansion of Russia to the West and South. Outline the boundaries between Russia and the possessions of her neighbors—Sweden, Poland, and the Ottoman Empire—at the accession of Peter the Great. (Shepherd 120, 124, 130, 138-139; Muir, plate 26a; Hayes I, 369 map.) Then after reading Hayes I, 369-379, show the territorial acquisitions made by Peter. Consult Shepherd and Muir as above, and also map in Hayes I, 369. State clearly in your key from whom and by what treaty each acquisition was made. Locate Poltava.

The work of Peter the Great was carried on by his successors. Trace the gains made during the eighteenth century, noting especially those of Catherine the Great, at the expense of the Turks and the Poles. Read Hayes I, 379-388. Consult atlases as above. In tracing the partitions of Poland, note, but do not indicate, the acquisitions of Prussia and Austria.

Now glance again at the map in Muir, plate 26. Russia has secured her "windows." The middle kingdoms have been greatly weakened; one has disappeared entirely. But Russia has still to secure a satisfactory outlet to the south, nor is her westward expansion stopped. (Compare Map Study Number Seventeen.)

MAP STUDY NUMBER TWENTY.

UNIFICATION OF ITALY, 1848-1871.

Text: Hayes II, 163-175.

Atlas: Shepherd, 161; Muir, plate 18b; Robertson, plates 16-18; Hayes II, 165 map, 427 map.

McKinley Outline Map No. 132a.

Recall the reorganization of the Italian peninsula as accomplished by Napoleon (Map Study Number Sixteen), and the virtual undoing of his work by the Congress of Vienna (Map Study Number Seventeen). Observe in this connection, however, that although the house of Habsburg has tightened its grip more firmly than ever upon the peninsula, the kingdom of Sardinia has emerged with increased territory acquired at the expense of Genoa. Recall also the unsuccessful attempt of Sardinia to drive Austria from Italian soil in 1848 (Map Study Number Nineteen). A later attempt will prove more successful.

As you read your text (Hayes II, 163-175) try to make your work visual by constant reference to the atlas (Shepherd, 161; Muir, plate 18b; Hayes II, 165 map). Draw on your outline map the kingdom of Sardinia as it was in 1848. Locate Plombières and indicate the territories which Cavour promised as the price of French aid against Austria. Now trace on your map the steps in the unification of Italy, indicating in your key when and how each state was annexed to Sardinia (1859-60). Then show what the newly constituted kingdom of Italy secured from her alliance with Prussia in 1866, and from the Franco-German war of 1870-71. Had Italy now reached her national boundaries? Show the lands in which the Italian population predominates, but which still remained in the possession of the Habsburgs (Hayes II, 427 map). This will help to explain Italy's entrance into the War of the Nations (1915).

An Occasional Museum

BY M. M. FISHBACK, HIGH SCHOOL, ORANGE, CAL.

A number of recent articles in the *HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* have emphasized the value of the historical museum as an aid in school work. To-day, many universities and colleges as well as normal schools have well equipped and discriminately selected museums. Therefore, it is not necessary to discuss the general value of the history museum as a means of stimulating interest in the past and making it real to present-day students.

The great majority of high schools will never be able to emulate the colleges in developing the museum. Some of the larger secondary schools with their thousands of students may succeed in getting together a creditable collection, but the building up of a museum of any real proportions will scarcely be possible to the average high school. But, it is not impossible to make use of the *museum idea* in the smallest of high schools. History teachers in these schools and in those somewhat larger may be interested in a plan that we worked out last year. Ours is a union high school serving a community of about ten or twelve thousand people—a rather typical situation.

The difficulties in arranging for a permanent museum suggested the possibility of having a temporary one. The individual who cherishes a relic of value hesitates to give it away, or even to part with it for any indefinite period. However, he usually is very glad to loan it for a day or two if good care is guaranteed. On these terms we secured many articles that we could not have obtained otherwise.

Our American history classes were in the midst of the Civil War period when Lincoln's birthday approached. This suggested to us the idea of getting together all the material of that time that we could and arranging it in a "Lincoln Day Museum." An appeal was made not only to the history classes but to the school at large. A great deal of enthusiasm was developed as the discovery of one souvenir after another was announced. Soon the whole community was enlisted in the movement and it was gratifying the number of things of real value that were found. The fact that we are in a western state far remote from what might be called the Civil War section made these discoveries all the more remarkable. The day before the exhibit the material was brought to the high school and responsible students received and tagged the different articles. These were arranged on tables placed in one of the larger rooms. During the morning the history classes were taken to this room and a study of the various exhibits was made. In the afternoon, the school as a whole, as well as the people of the community, including the old soldiers, the Relief Corps, and the Daughters of Veterans, had an opportunity of seeing the museum. The results, we believe, were very much worth while. Perhaps not the least of these was the bringing together of the history department and the patrons of the school upon a common ground of interest.

There was a most varied assortment of articles in the museum. Many reflected the home life of '61 while others were of the war and the field of battle. The boys gloried in the guns, the sabers, the bayonets, the swords, pieces of shell, revolvers, and canteens; the girls found much to interest them in the soldier's housewife, the old Seth Thomas clock, a beautifully worked bed-spread, an old fashioned snuff-box, samplers and an old time scrap-book. All were eager to examine the confederate money, the shinplasters, the old stamps and the war time envelopes. A genuine copy of the "Vicksburg Citizen" printed on wall paper was presented to the school by the G. A. R. post as was also a copy of the New York Herald containing the account of the assassination of Lincoln. A number of pictures and books, several documents signed by the great President and a valuable collection of Civil War cartoons made up another section of the exhibit. Two diaries of the period were brought in by one of the students. In looking through these we came across this entry: "Nov. 8, 1864. To-day I voted for Abraham Lincoln; to-night I went to a dance and met Molly Adams." Without doubt, our most ambitious relic was a silver water set belonging to one of our teachers whose father was one of the principals of the famous Brownlow-Pryne debate in 1859 in Philadelphia—"Ought American Slavery to be Perpetuated?" The set was presented to Mr. Pryne by the free Negroes of Philadelphia and bears this inscription:

"Presented Feb. 21, 1859 to the Rev. A. Pryne of McGrawville, New York, by his friends (proscribed Americans) of Philadelphia as a testimonial of their approbation for his able and triumphant defense of human freedom in the late debate with Parson Brownlow of Tennessee."

This plan has several distinct merits besides making use of the museum idea where it is not possible to have a permanent museum. With the temporary or occasional museum it is much easier to emphasize the period studied than it is with a permanent one which is always accessible to the students. The occasional museum comes to them with a certain freshness and interest that does not always obtain with the permanent museum. Showing the relics of one period only serves to specialize the work in a way that concentrates the attention of the high school boy and girl. We found that our students enthusiastically entered into the work of collecting the material of the Civil War period. This year we hope to have a Colonial Museum on Washington's birthday. Undoubtedly, one of the most commendable features of the plan is that the work was the result of the efforts of the students themselves. Modest as was our museum, there was some opportunity of teaching the students a little in the way of interpreting values so that they would not be entirely at sea in a real museum. Altogether, the occasional museum presents many opportunities to stimulate interest in historical work and to make it attractive to the secondary student, besides bringing the history department in a concrete way before the community at large.

Reports from The Historical Field

The Texas History Teachers' Bulletin for November, 1916 (Vol. 5, No. 1), contains a brief statement of the "Problem Method of Teaching History," by A. W. Birdwell. Superintendent J. T. Davis, of Navasota, describes "The Methods of Teaching Civics in the Schools of Navasota." Prof. Eugene C. Barker, of the University of Texas, continues his interesting and valuable source readings in Texas history, showing in this issue the friction which developed between the Colonists and the Mexican soldiers. The source extracts are accompanied by a series of suggestive questions and problems.

The November number of "Daughters of the American Revolution Magazine" contains an interesting illustrated article upon the surrender of Burgoyne, giving photographs of important sites in connection with Burgoyne's campaign.

A conference upon the Education of Immigrants was held at Buffalo, N. Y., on Tuesday and Wednesday, November 28 and 29, under the chairmanship of Frederic E. Farrington, Director of Immigrant Education, United States Bureau of Education. Among the topics discussed were "The Relations of Chambers of Commerce to Immigrant Education," "The Relation of Women's Organizations to Such Education," "The Training of Teachers for the Instruction of Immigrants," "The Importance of Giving Civic Education to the Immigrant," and "A Discussion of Domestic Immigration Program for the City, the State and the Nation."

Arthur B. Archer, of the Holt Secondary School, Liverpool, England, has for some time been experimenting with a new course in the history of discovery. The course was given to students of the same grade as American high school students. It was spread over two years with one lesson every two weeks, and was made supplementary to the work in history and geography. As a result of this experiment, Mr. Archer has issued in book form "Stories of Exploration and Discovery" (New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 65 cents), in which he gives a simple narrative of the explorations from the time of the Vikings and Marco Polo to Sir John Franklin and the attainment of the North and South Poles. The work has a number of maps, illustrations, and a brief bibliography for further reading.

Prof. Milledge L. Bonham, Jr., contributes to the Bulletin of Louisiana State University (Vol. 7, No. 8, August, 1916) a paper entitled, "Recent History: To What Extent to the Exclusion of Other History?"

The United States Department of the Interior has issued a beautifully illustrated series of pamphlets entitled, "National Park Portfolio." Magnificent photographs are shown of the Yellowstone, Yosemite, Sequoia, Mount Rainier, Crater Lake, Mesa Verde, Glacier, and Rocky Mountain National Parks.

The "Minnesota History Bulletin" for August, 1916, contains a lively story of a trip with the Minnesota exhibition at the Crystal Palace Exhibit in New York City, 1853. The principal part of the exhibition was a Buffalo Bull which led the Minnesota commissioners a strenuous life in the eastern city. There is a description of the Neill papers presented to the Minnesota Historical Society by the daughter of Rev. E. D. Neill, a noted historian of the colonial period.

The history teachers of another State have organized themselves for the purpose of professional advancement. A West Virginia History Teachers' Association has been formed recently, and Mr. Charles E. Hedrick, of the State Normal School at Glenville, was chosen president, and Miss Dora Newman, of Fairmount, secretary.

The custom of celebrating in the schools a day given up to the State's history, government and institutions, has been adopted by Minnesota. The State Department of Education has issued a bulletin giving a brief statement concerning the national features, resources, etc., of the State, and suggestions to teachers for the observance of Minnesota Day.

Prof. A. W. Risley, of the New York State College for Teachers at Albany, contributed to the Journal of the New York State Teachers' Association for October, 1916 (Vol. 3, No. 6), a paper entitled, "International Law and the Present European War."

The Journal of the Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce for November, 1916, contains an article by Dr. John P. Garber, Superintendent of Schools of Philadelphia, upon "The Education of the Adult Immigrant."

The Texas History Teachers' Association met at Fort Worth on December 1. The following program was prepared: "What Should History Mean to the High School Teacher?" by Prof. E. C. Barker, chairman of School of History, University of Texas; "What Results Should the History Teacher Obtain?" by Dr. C. C. Pearson, Houston High School, and "How Can the Results of History Teaching be Best Tested?" by S. E. Frost, Fort Worth High School; E. D. Criddle, North Texas Normal, and Superintendent W. B. Ferguson, Wolfe City.

The annual report of the United States Secretary of the Navy for the year 1916 contains an interesting statement of the educational plan proposed for the Navy by Secretary Daniels. The educational work has been greatly expanded during the past year until at the present time the Secretary can state that "every man in the Navy is a student from the Admiral in the War College to the midshipman at the Naval Academy and the apprentice in the Training Station and aloft." A wide variety of industrial courses is opened by the Navy to ambitious young men, training in electricity, in machine shop work, in engine construction, control in the work of shipwrights, ship fitters, blacksmiths, painters and plumbers, and also in the clerical work of expert stenographers, typewriters, bookkeepers, etc. Opportunities are given those who desire to train for hospital work, and boys with musical talent are taught in schools at Norfolk and San Francisco.

"Revolutionary Leaders of North Carolina" is the title of Number 2 of the North Carolina State Normal and Industrial College Historical Publications. The papers consist of a series of lectures delivered in the spring of 1913 by Mr. R. D. W. Connor, secretary of the North Carolina Historical Commission. The pamphlet contains, first, a general description of the revolutionary movement in North Carolina; this is followed by biographical accounts of John Harney, Cornelius Hornett, Richard Caswell and Samuel Johnston.

"History in the Grades" is the subject of Number 30 of "Teaching," issued by the Kansas State Normal School at Emporia. The pamphlet furnishes valuable suggestions concerning the work in each of the grades. It gives references to the source of historic pictures, and there is an edi-

torial account illustrated with many views, showing how construction work can be introduced in the history course in the grades. A bibliography of history stories for the grades accompanies the general articles.

The Metropolitan Museum of Arts published in connection with the November number of its Bulletin a four-page leaflet entitled, "Children's Bulletin," which tells the story of Agnos and Pyxis, and is preceded by a picture of the Judgment of Paris, a design found on a Greek Toilet Box.

The papers presented at the College Teachers' Session of the Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association, held at Leland Stanford, Junior, University, November 27, 1915, have recently been printed under the title, "The Freshman Year of History in College." The pamphlet contains three papers, as follows: "The Relation between High School History and Freshman History," by Edith Jordan Gardner; "Freshman History at the University of California," by Everett S. Brown, and "Present Tendencies in the Teaching of Freshman History," by Arley Barthlow Show. The paper on "Freshman History at the University of California" was published in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for October, 1916.

"The Mexican Review," of which three numbers appeared up to December 1, is published in Washington, D. C., and is devoted to "the enlightenment of the American people in respect to the hopes, ambitions, beneficent intentions and accomplishments of the constitutionalist government of the Republic of Mexico."

PACIFIC COAST BRANCH.

The Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association held its thirteenth annual meeting at San Diego, December 1 and 2. The program was as follows: Friday afternoon, "The United States in the Caribbean," by Prof. Waldemar C. Westergaard, Pomona College; "What is Nationality?" by Prof. Tully C. Knoles, University of Southern California; "Town and Municipal Government in the Early Days of Utah," by Prof. Levi E. Young, University of Utah. Friday evening, Prof. Henry Morse Stephens, presiding, informal addresses. Saturday morning, organizations' session. A. Addresses, "Thirty-three Years of Historical Activity," by James M. Guinn, secretary of the Southern California Historical Association; "The Work of the California Historical Survey Commission," by Owen C. Coy, secretary and archivist of the Commission. B. Business session. 1. Reports of committees. 2. Election of officers. 3. New business. C. Tours of exhibits. "A County Historical Collection," by Mrs. Margaret V. Allen, curator of the San Diego Pioneer Society; "Four of the Ethnological Buildings and an Explanation of the School of American Archaeology and Its Work," by Edgar L. Hewett, director of the School of American Archaeology. Saturday afternoon, Teachers' Session. "Motivation of History in the Elementary School," by W. L. Stephens, Superintendent of Schools, Long Beach; "The Development of Initiative in the High School Student of History," by Sara L. Dole, Manual Arts High School, Los Angeles; discussion of papers 1 and 2; "Research Work for the Junior College Student," by Dr. Frederic W. Sanders, Hollywood Junior College; discussion. "History Teaching in the Secondary School from the Standpoint of the College and University," by Prof. Ephraim D. Adams, Stanford University. Discussion. The officers of the branch are as follows: President, Joseph Schafer, University of Oregon; vice-president, Jeanne Elizabeth Wier, University of Nevada; secretary-

treasurer, William A. Morris, University of California; the Council, the above officers and Prof. Richard F. Scholz, University of California; Prof. Percy A. Martin, Stanford University, and Miss Jane E. Harnett, Long Beach High School; Program Committee, Robert G. Cleland, Miss Jane Harnett, E. E. Robinson, R. H. Lutz and H. I. Priestley; Committee on Arrangements, W. F. Bliss, Allen H. Wright, Mrs. Margaret V. Allen, Miss Harriet L. Bromley, N. A. N. Clevon.

FALL MEETING OF THE NORTHWESTERN ASSOCIATION OF HISTORY, GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS TEACHERS.

A meeting of the Northwestern Association of History, Government and Economics Teachers was held in the Lewis and Clark High School, Spokane, on the 26th and 27th of October.

The program for the session of the 26th consisted of an address by Dr. Thomas M. Marshall, of the University of Idaho, on "Western History as a Field for Study." Dr. Marshall told of some of the more important collections of materials for the study and writing of the history of the Pacific Coast, and something of what had been done already by writers in the field. He emphasized the importance of collecting material for economic and social studies. This address was followed by a round table discussion on "Some Special Methods in History Teaching," led by Miss Fannie Johnston, of the State Normal School, Cheney, Wash.

On the 27th, Prof. O. H. Richardson, of the University of Washington, gave a most enlightening address on "The Present Situation in the Balkans." He traced briefly the place of the Balkan States in the precipitation of the present European crisis, and then taking up each State separately, showed its part in the conflict, how far its interests are involved, and its influence upon the ultimate outcome.

The last part of the second session was given to the consideration of a report from a committee on the formulation of the objects of history teaching appointed at the spring meeting of the association. The committee consisted of Prof. Leroy F. Jackson, State College of Washington, chairman; Prof. Edward McMahon, University of Washington; Prof. C. S. Kingston, Cheney Normal; Mr. Ransom A. Mackie, Queen Anne High School, Seattle, and Miss Margaret Boyle, of the Butte (Montana) High School. The committee, after enumerating several minor aims, stated that they considered the two essential values of history instruction to be: (1) A familiarity with social phenomena and facility in drawing conclusions from them, and (2) the development of an historical point of view. The report was adopted with a motion that it be printed and distributed to the members.

OKLAHOMA HISTORY TEACHERS.

On December 1, the History Section of the Oklahoma State Teachers' Association held its regular annual meeting. The following program was presented: Chairman, Miss Margaret Mitchell, Central State Normal School, Edmond; secretary, Miss Stella Barton, High School, Muskogee. "Use of Illustrative Material in Teaching Local History," by Miss Lucy Jeston Hampton, Central State Normal School, Edmond; "The Relation of Folklore to History," by Walter S. Campbell, State University, Norman; "The Study of History as a Preparation for Life," by E. E. Holmes, Henry Kendall College, Tulsa; and "Advantages to be Derived from a Permanent History Teachers' Association," by C. W. Turner, High School, Oklahoma City. When the program was finished the one hundred and

twenty-five teachers present unanimously voted to organize an independent Oklahoma History Teachers' Association. The new society will retain its connection with the State Teachers' Association, and have its usual sectional meeting, but will hold another annual meeting in May. Prof. R. G. Sears, of the Ada State Normal School, was elected president and Miss Jeanette Gordon, of the Oklahoma City High School, was elected secretary. An Executive Committee, consisting of Mr. C. W. Turner, head of Oklahoma City High School History Department, chairman; Dean J. S. Buchanan, head of the Oklahoma University History Department, and Miss Margaret Mitchell, of the Central State Normal School. This committee is to draft a suitable constitution and by-laws, prepare a program, and fix the time and place for the next meeting.

NEW YORK HISTORY TEACHERS.

The History Section of the New York Teachers' Association met in the Hutchinson High School, Buffalo, N. Y., November 27 and 28, with Prof. Edgar Dawson, of Hunter College, in the chair. The general subject under discussion was local civics, local history, and local archives. The subject of local civics was discussed by Dr. J. Lynn Barnard, of the School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia; the teaching of local history was treated by Albert E. McKinley, of the University of Pennsylvania, and the preservation and use of public archives and records were discussed by Dr. James Sullivan, New York State Historian. Following the presentation of these papers a round table discussion was had concerning the difficulties in the way of teaching local history and civics, and how these difficulties might be met. Among those who took part in the discussion were: Inspector Avery W. Skinner, State Department of Education; Miss Emily M. Totman, Oneida High School; Mr. Charles L. Hewitt, Syracuse East High School; Mr. Charles M. Whitney, Buffalo High School; Miss Rachel M. Jarrold, Fredonia State Normal School; Mr. Edward P. Smith, North Tonawanda High School; Principal George E. Baldwin, Salem High School; Miss Marion S. Skeels, Owego High School.

UNIVERSITY TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE.

How urban universities may aid in the training for public service was discussed at the meeting of the Association of Urban Universities, November 15 to 17, 1915, held in Cincinnati. A report of the meeting has recently appeared as Bulletin No. 30, 1916, of the United States Bureau of Education. The Bulletin prints the principal papers presented at the meeting. Among the topics treated is "The Need of Co-operation between Universities and Municipal Corporations." The paper shows that there was a demand for such service, that business methods can be applied to the conduct of municipal affairs, but that there was need of further investigation of the problems of public service. Methods of preparation for public service were discussed and illustrations given from the practice of the New York Training School for Public Service, and also from the field work carried on by many universities, particularly the Municipal University of Akron, O. Much attention was given to the results of co-operative training for public service. While at least one of the papers dealt rather with what results should be attained, most of the discussion was upon what actual values had been shown. These may be named as practical efficiency, an encouragement of unofficial activity, a more intimate association of the university scholar with his community, and the opening of university courses to persons already engaged in public service.

DES MOINES, IOWA, December 10, 1916.

EDITOR HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE: May I be permitted to call attention to a few errors in the report of the Iowa Social Science Teachers' meeting in your December issue.

In the first place, membership in this organization is not limited to university and college professors. The constitution expressly states that all teachers of political science, sociology, or history are eligible to membership in the society, and we are most anxious to have this fact clearly understood.

In the second place, some numbers were omitted from the program in your account. On Thursday afternoon two papers were read: "The Iowa Primary Law," by Henry J. Peterson, Professor of Political Science, Iowa Teachers' College, and "The Teaching of Iowa History in the Schools of Iowa," by Dr. Dan E. Clark, of the State Historical Society, Iowa City, Iowa. This meeting was followed by the annual dinner and business session. In the absence of the president, Prof. Louis B. Schmidt, of the Iowa State College, the meeting was in charge of the chairman of the Executive Committee, Prof. Olynthus B. Clark, of Drake University. Officers were chosen as follows: President, Prof. Gilbert G. Benjamin, Iowa University; vice-president, Prof. Henry J. Peterson, Iowa Teachers' College; secretary, Miss Martha Hutchinson, West High School, Des Moines; chairman of Executive Committee, Mr. Thomas Teakle, North High School, Des Moines.

On Friday afternoon, in a meeting technically known as the History and Civics Round Table, the opening address was given by Dr. Charles Zueblin, of Boston, on "The New Civic Spirit." A paper written by Prof. H. G. Plum, of Iowa University, was read by Mr. Clifford G. Moore, instructor in history, Iowa University, on the subject, "The Method of Teaching Current Events." Miss Mary M. Kaynor read a paper on "The Problem of Elementary History," and Miss Alice E. Moss discussed "Teaching Community Civics."

During the business session, the question of closer affiliation between the Round Table and the Society of Social Science Teachers was discussed, and in order to bring this about it was moved "that the history and civics round table become a part of the Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers; and that the chairman of the Executive Committee of the Society of Social Science Teachers, Mr. Thomas Teakle, and the secretary of the Society of Social Science Teachers, Miss Martha Hutchinson, be chairman and secretary respectively of the History and Civics Round Table for the coming year."

Yours very truly,
MARTHA HUTCHINSON.

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PERIODICAL LITERATURE

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

The "American Catholic Quarterly Review" for July contains a most interesting article on "Medieval Warfare" by Darley Dale. The article is based on a study of old chronicles, records of sieges, etc., and gives a vivid picture of the military methods employed by the medieval warriors.

The September number of the "North American Review" is of especial interest to historians. Henry Rutgers Marshall discusses "War and Progress;" Willis Fletcher Johnson tells "The Story of the Danish Islands;" John Hays Hammond, Jr., outlines "The Future Mechanism of Warfare;" Oswald Garrison Villard attempts to unravel "The Mystery of Woodrow Wilson;" Editor Harvey analyses "The Political Situation," and David Jayne Hill's first article on "President Wilson's Administration of Foreign Affairs," a detailed and quite impartial criticism of the present administration, are all worthy of note.

Lacey Amy's "With the Canadians from the Front" ("Canadian Magazine" for September) is the first of a series of articles on the Princess Pats, and gives plenty of proof of the grim determination and splendid courage displayed by this regiment. The same magazine contains a picturesque study of the "Signories of the Saguenay," by Hidalla Simard.

The August "Contemporary Review" has a most entertaining article "On the Supernatural Element in History," by Harold Temperly. He urges that the marvels of all ages be subjected to proper historic criticism, and asserts that after such tests are applied legendary conceptions will prove to be truer than the traditional historic account.

Herman C. Smith's "History of the Church of Latter-Day Saints," in the "Journal of American History," July-September, contains some rather interesting and unusual illustrations.

HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

Additions to and corrections of the following list of associations are requested by the editor of the MAGAZINE:

Alabama History Teachers' Association, T. L. Grove, Tuscaloosa, Ala., member of Executive Council.

American Historical Association—Secretary, Waldo G. Leland, Washington, D. C.

History Teachers' Association of Cincinnati, O.—Secretary, J. W. Ayres, High School, Madisonville, O.

History Section of Colorado Teachers' Association; Western Division, president, Elizabeth Chaney, Montrose; Southern Division, president, Lemuel Pitts, Denver; Eastern Division, president, Mark J. Sweeney, Colorado Springs.

History Teachers' Association of Florida—President, Miss Caroline Brevard, Woman's College, Tallahassee; secretary, Miss E. M. Williams, Jacksonville.

Indiana History Teachers' Association—President, Beverley W. Bond, Jr., Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.; secretary, D. H. Eilsenberry, Muncie, Ind.

Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers—President, Prof. G. B. Benjamin, State University of Iowa; secretary, Miss M. A. Hutchinson, West Des Moines High School.

Jasper County, Mo., History Association—Secretary, Miss Elizabeth Peiffer, Carthage, Mo.

Kleio Club of University of Missouri.

Association of History Teachers of Middle States and Maryland—President, Miss Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School, Philadelphia; secretary, Prof. L. R. Schuyler, City College, New York City.

Mississippi Valley Historical Association, Teachers' Section—Chairman, A. O. Thomas, Lincoln, Neb.; secretary, Howard C. Hill, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

Missouri Association of Teachers of History and Government—Secretary, Jesse E. Wrench, Columbia, Mo.

Nebraska History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Julia M. Wort, Lincoln, Neb.

New England History Teachers' Association—President, Miss Margaret McGill, Classical High School, Newtonville, Mass.; secretary, Mr. Horace Kidger, 82 Madison Avenue, Newtonville, Mass.

New York City Conference—Chairman, Fred H. Paine, East District High School, Brooklyn; secretary-treasurer, Miss Florence E. Stryker, State Normal School, Montclair, N. J.

New York State History Teachers' Association—President, Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City; secretary, R. Sherman Stowell, West High School, Rochester, N. Y.

History Teachers' Section of Association of High School Teachers of North Carolina—Chairman, Miss Catherine Albertson, Elizabeth City, N. C.

History, Civics and Social Science Section of North Dakota Educational Association—President, H. C. Fish, State Normal School, Minot; secretary, Miss Hazel Nielson, High School, Fargo.

Northwest Association of Teachers of History, Economics and Government—Secretary, Prof. L. T. Jackson, Pullman, Wash.

Ohio History Teachers' Association—Chairman, Wilbur H. Siebert, Ohio State University, Columbus; secretary, W. C. Harris, Ohio State University.

Political Science Club of students who have majored in history at Ohio State University.

Rhode Island History Teachers' Association—Secretary, A. Howard Williamson, Technical High School, Providence, R. I.

Oklahoma History Teachers' Association—President, Prof. R. G. Sears, State Normal School, Ada; secretary, Miss Jeanette Gordon, High School, Oklahoma City.

South Dakota History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Edwin Ott, Sioux Falls, S. D.

Tennessee History Teachers' Association—Secretary-treasurer, Max Souby, Murfreesboro, Tenn.

Texas History Teachers' Section of the State Teachers' Association—President, Frederic Duncalf, Austin, Texas; secretary, L. F. McKay, Temple, Texas.

Twin City History Teachers' Association—President, Miss Medora Jordan, The Leamington, Minneapolis; secretary, Miss L. M. Ickler, 648 Delaware Avenue, St. Paul, Minn.

Virginia History Teachers' Section of Virginia State Teachers' Association—President, Prof. J. M. Lear, Farmville; secretary, Katherine Wicker, Norfolk, Va.

Teachers' Historical Association of Western Pennsylvania—Secretary, Anna Ankrom, 1108 Franklin Avenue, Wilkesburg, Pa.

West Virginia History Teachers' Association—President, Charles E. Hedrick, Glenville; secretary, Dora Newman, of Fairmont.

Wisconsin History Teachers' Association—Chairman, A. C. Kingsford, Baraboo High School; secretary, A. H. Sanford, La Crosse Normal School.

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

KRUEGER, FRITZ-KONRADN. *Government and Politics of the German Empire*. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1915. Pp. xi, 399. \$1.00.

Mr. Krüger's little volume is a useful manual concerning German life and politics written from a strongly nationalistic point of view. The style and language are simple, and there is no attempt to go into detail unimportant for the general student of foreign governments. An effort is made to make German government more easily understood by the American reader by introducing frequent comparisons and contrasts with the governments under which our people live. Many pictures are given of the men who have helped to make modern Germany, and a number of charts present graphically the strength of the various groups of opinion which are the basis of German political life. At the end of each chapter is a short bibliography of easily accessible works to guide the student in further study. A critical bibliography, rather extended for so small a work, evidently intended for the beginner, concludes the volume. The book should be decidedly useful both for the student who wishes a brief elementary treatise on Germany and for the general reader.

CHESTER LLOYD-JONES.

University of Wisconsin.

MATHEWS, NATHAN. *Municipal Charters: A Discussion of the Essentials of a City Charter*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1914. Pp. viii, 210. \$2.00.

Twenty-five years' connection with municipal affairs makes this volume by an ex-mayor of Boston one in which practical experience has greater emphasis than theory. The first ninety-three pages are devoted to commentary. Mr. Mathews considers most of the radical proposals for changes in municipal government ill advised. He considers that there are serious disadvantages in the radical extension of home rule to cities, and favors concentrating authority in the hands of a mayor rather than of a commission. In the light of Massachusetts experience, it is maintained that the municipal public services ought to be under the control of a State civil service commission. The chapters on administration emphasize the necessity of concentrating the responsibility for the work of the several departments in the hands of single officers. The latter portion of the book is devoted to a draft charter with notes and comments suggesting ways in which the charter may be modified to fit local conditions or preference for different forms of organization. Other works present in greater detail the descriptive material of the introductory chapters, but there are few detailed drafts of actual charters which better merit study than the one here presented. It is presented in cogent English, and embraces experience rather than theory.

CHESTER LLOYD-JONES.

University of Wisconsin.

GOEBEL, JULIUS, JR., PH.D. *The Recognition Policy of the United States*. Studies in History, Economics and Public Law, Columbia University, LXVI, No. 1. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1915. Pp. 228. \$2.00.

This subject should never have been assigned for a doctor's thesis. It requires not so much the accumulation of a definite body of material, as a broad acquaintance with a vast field of fact, such as can come only with years of study and experience. More than the normal amount of

misinformation is scattered through its pages, and the evidences of lack of information are glaring. It is perhaps owing to immaturity also that the treatment is wrapped in subtlety to the point that theory clogs rather than explains. One-third is devoted to theory alone. Nevertheless one feels Mr. Goebel's ability, and his work constitutes a contribution. To add that he is a sound thinker does not imply that one always agrees with him.

He has given a history of the United States policy with regard to the recognition of new States and new governments, but not recognition of belligerency. He attributes to Jefferson in large measure the development of the American policy of recognition on the *de facto* rather than the *de jure* basis, and considers American practice an influential factor in causing nations generally to abandon the principle of legitimacy in such cases. He considers American practice also potent in differentiating recognition from intervention, but his theoretical tendencies prevent his full realization of the difficulty in separating the two in fact.

Mr. Goebel believes emphatically in the desirability of the *de facto* system, but the glaring defect in his treatment is the lack of any discussion of the *criteria* which determine what government is *de facto*. It is possible that had he considered this phase of the subject more fully he might have classified Seward's recognition policy as an attempt to deal with this problem, rather than as a relapse toward legitimacy; yet his interpretation may be correct. At any rate, he finds that the United States reverted after Seward to the *de facto* policy, though exercising greater caution than before the Civil War. The Panama episode he considers not as determining a new policy, but, as President Roosevelt wished it to be considered, an exception due to exceptional conditions. It is probably rather with hope than with confidence he assigns President Wilson's Mexico policy to the same category. "The fact that the question of recognition constantly occurs would render a departure from the enlightened principles heretofore established a matter of grave import, while the dangers attending a relapse into the discarded theory and practice of legitimacy would be no less real and substantial because it was made under the guise of promoting constitutionalism."

CARL RUSSELL FISH.

The University of Wisconsin.

TOWNE, EZRA THAYER. *Social Problems: A Study of Present-Day Social Conditions*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xviii + 406. \$1.00.

President Vincent, of the University of Minnesota, in a recent article, says: "A new conception is making its way into the study of citizenship. It is the philosophy of social evolution." The dawning of this new day has been marked by an agitation for a full year course in civics in which not only the principles of political science would be taught, but also those of social science. In response to this demand, there have appeared several books on elementary sociology, among them the one now considered.

The aim of this book is "to bring before the students of social problems the facts regarding present-day conditions; to indicate certain weaknesses in our social order; to show what has already been done and is being done toward elimination of these weaknesses; and to impress upon these students, through presentation of such facts, the possibilities of wise, sane, constructive, social action."

Professor Towne has treated the subject logically, simply, in a language readily comprehended by pupils of high school age. Technical terms are not used, and he has not indulged in abstract sociological theorizing. There is nothing objectionable in the manner of presentation which

would offend the most critical—a statement which cannot be made of most works on sociology when considered for high school use. The subjects treated are population, immigration, labor, unemployment, defectives and their treatment, prevention and punishment of crime, the family, the liquor problem, poverty, conservation of natural resources, of plant and animal life, and of human life.

Too many statistics are quoted in the text, some of which should have been relegated to the end of the chapter or to the end of the book. Perhaps, considering the nature of the subject treated, this might not have been desirable. A historical error appears to have been made where the author refers to the American, or Know Nothing Party, as though there were two distinct parties (page 48).

Copious references to authority are given, and an excellent bibliography is found at the end of the chapters, most of the material of which can be obtained by every school. At the end of each chapter are given references to supplementary reading and suggestive questions which lead to further investigation. In this book is given a chance to further socialize the course in civics. With the usual study of governmental forms for one part of the work, and "Social Problems," with attendant investigation for the remainder, a truly profitable year can be spent. If it should not seem desirable to give a year to citizenship, this book will be a valuable adjunct to the school library as a reference for civics, American history, or economics.

W. H. HATHAWAY.

Riverside High School, Milwaukee.

FORDHAM, MONTAGUE. *A Short History of English Rural Life*. New York: Charles Scribners' Sons, 1916. Pp. xvi, 183. \$1.25.

The author declares his book grew out of a countryman's lectures to English country people; it is certain that his account of country life reveals a countryman's sympathy for the subject as well as a scholar's grasp of it. Basing this study, in part, on his own original investigation, and in larger measure on the work of Vinogradoff, Prothero, Oman, Jusséraud and others, he has succeeded not only in summarizing helpfully and explaining clearly the varying and often perplexing aspects of rural industry in medieval England, but also in picturing vividly rural life in the different periods, and making plain the agencies and influences that brought about the changes in it. The relation, too, between changing rural conditions and the religious and political development of England is well brought out. Very helpful to high school teachers of history and well within the range of usefulness for their pupils, it is of distinct value for the general reader, and so deserves a place in both school and public library. Save for an excellent plan of a twelfth century manor, it is not illustrated.

SCHAEFFER, HENRY. *The Social Legislation of the Primitive Semites*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1915. Pp. 245. \$2.35.

This book is an admirable study of primitive Semitic social life as expressed in the legislation of Babylonia and in Babylonian contract tablets, in the Hebraic code, in Mohammedan jurisprudence, and modern Arabic survivals. It is entirely scholarly in character, is written in the language of the doctoral dissertation—of which it is, in fact, an outgrowth—and makes no attempt at popular presentation. The frequent use of transliterated Hebraic, Babylonian and Arabic terms without explanation debars the book from recommendation as a reference work for high schools, and makes it rather difficult even for college use.

It should be in every college library, however, and will be found a profitable source of information by teachers of history who are interested in any phase of tribal development. It is especially useful to advanced students and teachers of sociology and ancient history.

The first four chapters present the laws of the family and inheritance under the Semitic patriarchal system. These are followed by single chapters on slavery, interest, pledges, the social problem, and poor laws. The last five chapters (10-14) center about the ancient Semitic system of land tenure and the closely related problems of taxation and tribute. Here especially Doctor Schaeffer has done a real service. The material which he presents must still be co-ordinated with the whole problem of ancient land tenure and its development.

W. L. WESTERMANN.

University of Wisconsin.

SCHEVILL, FERDINAND. *The Making of Modern Germany*. Six public lectures delivered in Chicago in 1915. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co., 1916. Pp. 259. \$1.25, net.

As the title indicates, this book is an amplification of six lectures delivered in 1915. Such a book has disadvantages, but for one wishing a brief, clear and readable survey of modern German, or rather Prussian, history it has great advantages. The author's thorough scholarship and his gift of incisive statement make the book very satisfactory. His first thirty pages deal with the rise of Brandenburg up to the time of Frederick the Great. Two-fifths of the space is used to carry the story to 1815, and the period since 1871 received the fullest treatment. In dealing with the causes of the present war, Dr. Schevill shows his sympathy with the moderate German point of view, but without any raving against England. In several appendices he gives convenient surveys of such problems as the Polish question, Alsace-Lorraine, etc. The book should prove useful to high school students.

Ohio State University.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

SCHMITT, BERNADOTTE EVERLY. *England and Germany, 1740-1914*. Princeton University Press, 1916. Pp. ix, 524. \$2.00, net.

During the past two years hosts of war books have been published, but most of those touching the Anglo-German rivalry have been tinged with bitterness. Dr. Schmitt takes sides with Great Britain, but only after a very thorough exposition of the historical evidence. He starts with a resumé of recent British imperial history and a longer survey of German government and policies, and especially of the recent German craze for expansion. Chapter V deals with the commercial rivalry between Germany and Great Britain. Here the author shows that in the five years before the war British trade and industry were more prosperous than ever before, and that British exporters were getting fully their share of the new business of the world. On the other hand, "the economic condition of Germany was far from roseate." Hence to say that Britain was angry because Germany was getting ahead of her, and therefore made war on Germany, is a succession of brazen falsehoods, he claims.

With Chapter VI the author takes up the history of diplomatic relations between England and Germany, on the whole friendly up to 1890, after that more and more unfriendly. He deals quite fully with the formation of the Ententes and the naval rivalry, and labors to disprove the German obsession that the great aim of British policy was to encircle Germany. Chapters X-XV comprise the latter

half of the book, and deal more fully with the near Eastern question and its influence on Anglo-German relations, the Moroccan disputes, especially that of 1911 and its effects, and the immediate causes of the great war.

Throughout the book Dr. Schmitt shows good mastery of the available sources of information. The book is quite readable and very informing. Most of the facts he brings out can be found in other places, but nowhere so conveniently as here. The book is well worth the attention of the general reader, and will prove a useful reference work for school libraries.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

CHARWOOD, GODFREY R. B., BARON. Abraham Lincoln. (Makers of the Nineteenth Century, edited by Basil Williams.) New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1916. Pp. VII, 479. \$1.75.

This is a book no intelligent person interested in American history can afford to leave unread. It is the most complete and satisfying interpretation of Lincoln, and its style far surpasses all but a few of the volumes in which one must seek our history. It does not give a complete narrative, and its quality unfits it for the high school student, but it is to be hoped that few high school students in the future will fail to receive some of its benefits, through the medium of their teachers.

CARL RUSSELL FISH.

University of Wisconsin.

RUSSELL, WILLIAM F. Economy in Secondary Education. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1916. Pp. viii, 74. 35 cents.

This little monograph in the Riverside Educational Series offers suggestiveness not alone to the principal and superintendent, but to the teacher as well, for especially the topics, economy through an increase of time devoted to study, economy through an improvement of instruction, and economy through the organization of the program of study, are closely related to the aims and efforts of all teachers. To the last named topic, especially large space is given, and an effective presentation is made of the need of readjustment of organization of the twelve grades of elementary and secondary schools to avoid present waste through vain repetition of subject matter, and through imperfect articulation of the lower and upper groups of these grades. The declared need of thoroughgoing revision of program thrusts on the teachers of history such questions as these: Is history in the higher grades sufficiently built upon that which is taught in the lower? If all other subjects in the seventh and eighth grades are to be challenged anew, as to their right to a place there, must not inquiry be made again as to what units of history and civics can best be taught there? Can we not more advantageously adapt our program of history and civics to that great majority of pupils who do not reach the senior year of high school. Thought along these and parallel lines is suggested and well directed by this little book.

ALLEN, GEORGE H. The Great War: Causes of and Motives For. With an introduction by William Howard Taft. Volume I. Second edition, revised. Philadelphia: George Barrie's Sons, 1915. Pp. xxx, 377. \$5.00.

Of the many volumes dealing with the Great War, few, in the reviewer's judgment, have presented the causes of that gigantic struggle more fully and more impartially than the work under survey.

Doctor Allen divides the causes of the war into two classes, potential and positive. Among the potential causes, the author lists racial prejudices, conflicting geographic and ethnographic boundaries, bitterness due to former wars, rival colonial ambitions, naval competition between Germany and Great Britain, German so-called *welt-politik*, international suspicion, and the irreconcilable interests of Teuton and Slav in the Balkan peninsula.

In an extensive chapter, the author describes the tangled skein of affairs and rival policies in the Balkans which culminated in the tragedy at Sarajevo, the immediate or positive cause of the war.

The attempts of Germany to preserve the general peace on the basis of absolute non-interference between Austria and Serbia—the only basis on which, according to the evidence, she made any such effort—and the earnest but fruitless efforts of Great Britain to secure a conference for mediation and conciliation are described with fulness and sympathy. The outrage on Belgium—the immediate cause of Great Britain's entrance into the war—and the motives which determined the course of Japan, Turkey and Italy, are clearly presented. Italy's case is discussed with especial keen and discriminating insight.

Doctor Allen thinks commercial rivalry a negligible factor in causing the war. He holds the evidence insufficient to prove that the Teutonic powers deliberately provoked the war, though he inclines to the belief that they thought the opportunity good to obtain their aims without war. He is sympathetic with Germany's *welt-politik*. He considers her culpably responsible, however, in not supporting Earl Grey's efforts for mediation and conference. He believes Russia incurred grave responsibility in ordering general mobilization.

The volume contains many items of interest. For example, it will surprise many to learn that Russia publishes annually a larger number of books than the United States and Great Britain combined; that the Bank of Russia, when the war began, had "the largest agglomeration of the precious metals in any repository in the world" (page 59); that Constantinople is of insignificant commercial importance compared with its strategic value.

Certain details should be noted. The comparative table of statistics (page 79) would be improved by the inclusion of Russia, Austria, Italy and Japan. "Scutari" is erroneously used in the title to the illustration on page 332. The Triple Alliance was formed in 1882, not 1883 (page 31). Some will be disposed to question the statement that "the Kaiser has probably been a sincere friend of peace, especially with England" (page 139). It would seem that in a volume of this sort some discussion should have been included of the philosophy of Nietzsche, Treitschke, von Bernhardi and others; except for the barest mention, however, the subject is omitted.

The work is profusely illustrated, some illustrations being in color. It is well supplied with numerous and valuable maps. The index is a makeshift. There is no bibliography. The publishers have done their full part to make the work a success; it is well bound, and print and paper are of unusual excellence.

To any who desire a full, readable, instructive and non-partisan account of the causes of the war, this volume can be strongly recommended. If the remaining volumes in the series prove as able as the one reviewed, the whole will form a valuable adjunct to any library.

HOWARD C. HILL.

State Normal School, Milwaukee.

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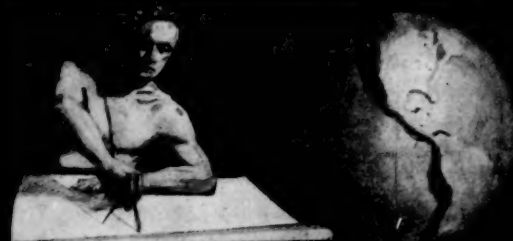
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